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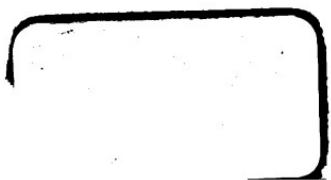
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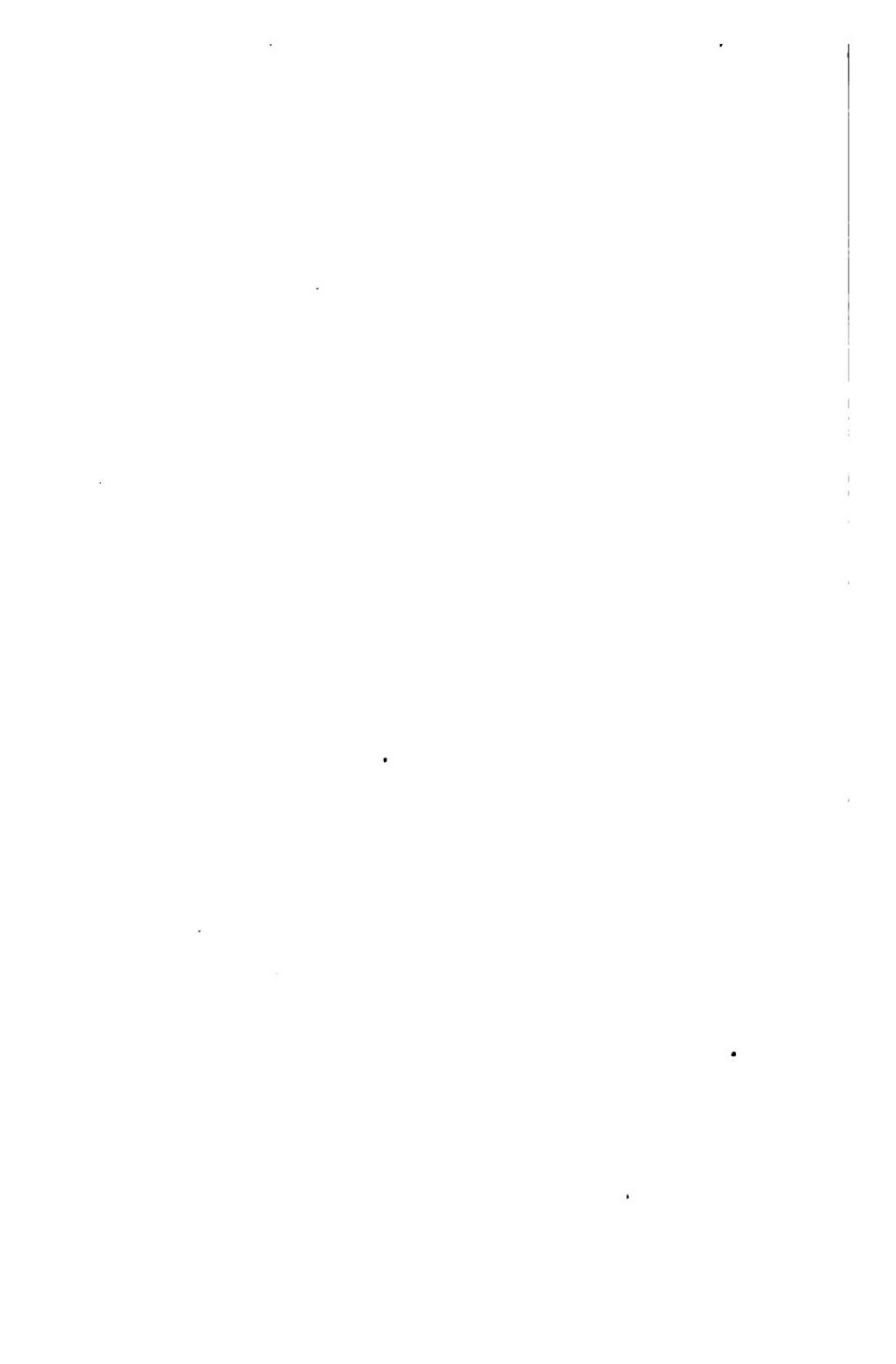
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151





The De Garmo Language Series

ELEMENTS
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BY

GEORGE P. BROWN

FORMER SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

ASSISTED BY

CHARLES DE GARMO

PROFESSOR OF THE SCIENCE AND ART OF EDUCATION,
CORNELL UNIVERSITY



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LANGUAGE LESSONS

By CHAS. DE GARMO, PH.D.

PROFESSOR OF THE SCIENCE AND ART OF EDUCATION,
CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, N. Y.

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By GEORGE P. BROWN

Former Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Indiana.

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PREFACE.

English Grammar is the science of the English sentence. In every science is involved,—1. An energy, or activity; and 2. The form in which that energy expresses itself. The science of government, for example, involves:—1. A *thought* which is the source of the form; and 2. The *form* which the thought takes on. So, too, the science of a sentence involves the *thought* to be expressed, and the sentence which is the *form* in which the thought is expressed. Neither of these elements can be disregarded in the study of grammar. In the study of botany we begin with the study of the form, or expression, and work toward the discovery of the thought, or meaning, which the plant expresses. But in grammar it is possible for us to begin with the study of our thought, and observe the processes by which we express this thought in words. The purpose of this book is to teach the construction of the English sentence from this point of view.

The first two chapters treat of the nature and kinds of ideas in the mind, and of the manner in which ideas are connected to form thoughts. Chapters III. and IV. treat of the classes of ideas and of words used to express ideas, and of the classes of thoughts and the kinds of sentences required for their expression. The study of the different parts of speech and of the different forms of sentences used in expressing thoughts is continued through Part I.

"Studies in Thought Analysis" are introduced throughout the book for the purpose of cultivating the pupil's feeling for good literature, as well as for practice in interpreting it.

The exercises are numerous, and are selected, for the most part, from literature. The authors have assumed that teachers will use many exercises of their own to precede and to

follow those in the book; or, better still, that many exercises will be furnished by the pupils themselves.

The remainder of the volume following Part I. does not differ greatly from the matter and method of other text-books on this subject, except in so far as all new matter is referred back to the thought it expresses for its justification. At every step language is viewed as a form or symbol used for the expression of thought, and definitions and rules are determined from this point of view. The old nomenclature has been retained. An attempt has been made to put a new meaning int it, and in so doing to awaken a love for the study of grammar, which is the most fascinating of studies when pupils are able to pursue it without losing their way.

If the first part is well mastered the remainder of the book will present few difficulties.

The treatment of the verb is different from that in most text-books. The discussion of *mood* is brief, but it opens the way for a fuller understanding of this difficult subject in the high school, after the pupil has become more mature. All other topics are easily within the range of pupils' ability in the seventh and eighth grades. It is assumed that in most schools this book will not be studied in grades below the seventh year of the course.

The authors wish to acknowledge their obligations to those persons who have shown an interest in the working out of the plan pursued in this volume. We are under special obligations to N. D. Gilbert for some valuable suggestions on the organization of the work of the first chapters, and for valuable criticisms; to A. R. Sabin and F. T. Oldt for reading the manuscript and for improvements suggested by them; to Elizabeth Mavity for numerous selections from literature that appear in the different exercises; and to Thomas Emerson and J. I. Buck for valuable assistance in reading some of the proof.

CONTENTS.

PART I.

CHAPTER		PAGE
	GENERAL STATEMENTS	9
I.	NATURE OF IDEAS	11
II.	NATURE OF THOUGHTS	18
III.	IDEAS AND THEIR EXPRESSION	23
IV.	THOUGHTS AND THEIR EXPRESSION	38
V.	PARTS OF SPEECH	48
VI.	PHRASES AND CLAUSES	63
VII.	FORMS OF SENTENCES	71
VIII.	ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE	78
IX.	ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES	100

PART II.

X.	CLASSIFICATION AND INFLECTION OF NOUNS	109
XI.	CLASSIFICATION AND INFLECTION OF PRONOUNS	140
XII.	CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES	153
XIII.	PROPERTIES AND CONJUGATION OF VERBS	161
XIV.	ADVERBS	199
XV.	PREPOSITIONS	206
XVI.	CONJUNCTIONS	211

CHAPTER	PAGE
XVII. DEFINITIONS OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS	215
XVIII. PECULIAR USES OF WORDS	218
XIX. DERIVATION OF WORDS	222

PART III.

XX. SYNTAX	229
XXI. PUNCTUATION	238

APPENDIX.

THE VERB	247
MOOD	248
CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS	249
ATTRIBUTES	251
REPRESENTED AND ACTUAL JUDGMENTS	252
<hr/>	
INDEX	253

PART I.

**IDEAS, THOUGHTS, WORDS, AND
SENTENCES.**

THE PURPOSE OF PART I.

The commanding purpose of Part I is:

1. To lead the pupils to distinguish between ideas and thoughts, and the words and sentences that express them; and,
2. To show that the relations of words, phrases, and clauses in a sentence depend upon the relations between the ideas that form the thought which the sentence expresses.

ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

GENERAL STATEMENTS.

1. Language (from *lingua*, the tongue) is composed of the words and sentences used by a people to express their ideas and thoughts.
2. In your study of Language Lessons you have learned *what forms* of words and sentences must be used to express your ideas and thoughts in a proper way.
3. You are now to begin the study of Grammar (from *gramma*, a letter). You will learn in this study how the words and sentences of the English language are related to the ideas and thoughts they are used to express.
4. Language Lessons teach *what forms* of words and sentences to use in expressing our thought.
5. Grammar teaches *why* these forms, and not others, must be used.
6. It will be well to remember that the ideas and thoughts of all the people in the world are very much alike. The Englishman calls an object "horse"; the Frenchman calls the same object "cheval"; the German, "Pferd"; but they all have the same *idea* in their minds. They use different words or signs to express it. So, too, they all have similar *thoughts* about things, but they put words together in different ways to make their sentences. People do not differ in their thoughts so much as in the symbols they use to express them.

7. You will need, first, to learn something of the nature of the ideas and thoughts that language expresses; you will then be better able to understand why English sentences are formed as they are.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

So many suggestions are made throughout the book that there is little need of speaking here of methods of teaching the subjects. It is probable that every teacher will carefully study the movement through from the first chapter to the last before beginning the use of the book in the class-room. The movement is a logical one so far as sequence of subjects is concerned. There is a frequent return to the same subject, with the addition of some new matter. This causes a good deal of apparent repetition, which will be found useful in preventing the pupil from losing his way. The book can be easily finished in a year and a half, provided the class works slowly and intelligently through the first four chapters, and does not begin too young. The mastery of those chapters is the mastery of the subject in its essential ideas. The succeeding chapters follow out in detail what is involved in those.

The teacher should soon discover that the pupil must determine the relations of the words in sentences by what he conceives to be the relations of the ideas in the thought. If the pupils do not see the meaning alike they will not analyze sentences alike. It is not important that they should see the meaning alike; but it is important that they analyze the sentence according to their own understanding of its meaning. For the teacher to insist upon a meaning that they cannot see is bad teaching. Wait until the pupil grows up to it.

CHAPTER I.

NATURE OF IDEAS.

WHAT IDEAS ARE.

8. What is this you see in my hand? (A pencil.) We call the pencil a thing or an object. Name other objects you see in the room.

Close your eyes and take something out of your desk. What is it? How can you tell what it is? (By the sense of touch.)

Close your eyes again and listen. What do you hear? (Strike the bell.) How do you know it is a bell? (By the sense of hearing.).

[Let the pupils distinguish objects by smell and by taste.]

How have you gained your knowledge of these objects? What senses have you used?

Things that we know by the use of the senses we call external objects.

9. You may now look at this apple I hold before you. Notice its color; its size; its shape; the stem-end; the blossom-end, etc..

I now put the apple out of sight. Do you seem to see it in my hand behind my back? Of what color is it? Of what size? Can you see the stem-end? the blossom-end? What can you see with your mind's eye in the center of the apple? Where are the seeds? Of what color are they? How would it sound if I should snap it with my finger?

Can you imagine how it would taste? (Let each one state what flavor the apple seems to have.) Can you seem to smell it? Which seems more distinct, the color or the smell?

You have now made a mental picture of the apple. This mental picture is an *idea*.

10. I now present again the external apple. Close your eyes and form an *idea* of it.

You may now look at the color of the apple. Close your eyes and form an idea of the color.

Form an idea of the smell of it; of the taste; of its weight. Does it seem to you to be mellow or hard?

Form an idea of your cat; your dog; your garden; your home; your church.

Which do you see more distinctly, the *object* apple, when I present it to you, or the *idea* you form of the apple afterwards?

Which appears clearer, the idea you now form of your father, or the idea of a partial stranger?

11. External objects are things that we can see, hear, feel, smell, or taste.

12. Ideas are the mental pictures, or notions, we form of things.

[The class should have more practice than is here given in the use of the different senses in perceiving objects, and in comparing the clearness of ideas gained through one sense with those gained through another, and in comparing the distinctness of the ideas formed when the object is *not* present with their sense-perception of it when it is present. Much practice may be necessary in order to make clear the distinction between the object as perceived by the senses and the idea or notion of it that is retained in the mind.]

IDEAS ARE OF DIFFERENT KINDS.

13. Object-Ideas. When you examine the ideas you have been using you find some of them to be ideas of things or *objects*.

Name objects you saw on your way to school. As you recall them you form ideas of them; describe your ideas by telling the different sense-elements (color, taste, smell, etc.) of which they are composed.

14. Ideas of things or objects are called object-ideas.

15. Attribute-Ideas. When you recall the idea of the apple you think of it as having *qualities*. What is its color? Its taste? Its shape? Is it heavy or light? Is it ripe? Name other qualities.

16. These qualities that belong to the apple are its attributes.

Name the qualities (attributes) of this crayon, that you discover by sight; of the clock; of the map; of a bird you have seen; of a tree with which you are familiar; of the full moon, etc.

What attributes of this crayon can you discover by the sense of touch? of taste? of hearing? Form an *idea* of a rose. What color has it? What odor? Can you recall the flavor?

Do you discover that the *object-ideas* have attributes that correspond to the attributes of the objects perceived by the senses?

17. When we form ideas of *things* we are compelled to form ideas of their *attributes*. In fact, all we know about an object by the senses is its attributes. If a

person had no senses whatever he could have no perception of external objects, and no *ideas* of them.

You may now close your eyes and form an idea of this book I have in my hand. You have now an object-idea in your mind. What color does it appear to have? Is it hard or soft? heavy or light? new or old? useful or worthless?

Since the ideas of the objects are object-ideas, the ideas we form of their attributes may be called what?

[Additional exercises should be given, if needed, to make clear the distinction between sense-objects and their attributes, and object-ideas and their attributes.]

18. Attributes of Action. Name some action of a bird (flying); of a fire (burning); of a dog; of a lion; of a tiger; of a robin; of a crow.

Objects may have characteristic *actions* as well as qualities.

When I think of the tiger as *cruel* I am thinking of a distinguishing quality. When I think of him as *crouching* I am considering a characteristic action. The action of *crouching* is an attribute of the tiger no less than is the quality *cruel*.

What are some characteristic actions of the following objects? A horse; a cow; a cat; a serpent; a bee; a lark; a rose; a nettle; an apple; a tree; the dew; the snow; the cold, etc.

Name *quality-attributes* of these objects.

19. You have now discovered that actions as well as qualities are attributes of objects.

Name the action-attributes of objects selected from the school-room; from the school grounds; from the garden; from the farm:

[Continue this exercise until attributes of quality and of action can be readily distinguished.]

20. You have learned that the mind is furnished with the following kinds of ideas:

Object-ideas.

Attribute-ideas { Quality-ideas.
Action-ideas.

Make a definition of each class that will tell what you have learned about it.

Objects have other attributes than *qualities* and *actions*. You will learn about these later.

[These first definitions are all partial and tentative.]

21. **Connecting-Ideas.** We have here on the table some apples. Let us compare them. Which two are the largest? Which two are the smallest?

You say, *The green apple and the red apple are the two largest.*

Note carefully what ideas you have. What are the two object-ideas? (*Green-apple* and *red-apple*.)

What are the attribute-ideas? (*Green*, *red*, *largest*.)

Green is the attribute of one apple; *red* is the attribute of the other; but *largest* is the attribute of *both taken together*. The green apple and the red apple must be taken together to make the *two largest*.

The idea *and* connects, in the thought, the two object-ideas, *green-apple* and *red-apple*, so that the same attribute may be asserted of both.

So, too, we may compare the russet apple with the yellow apple and think, *The russet apple or the yellow apple is sweet.* The idea *or* connects two object-ideas, so that the same attribute can be affirmed of either.

22. Supply the connecting ideas in the following: A beautiful — fragrant rose. Neither sweet — sour. The spring is cold — late. The sun — the moon give light.

Select from thoughts given by the teacher the connecting ideas.

23. Ideas that join together other ideas in the thought are **connecting-ideas**.

24. Select objects in the school-room having the same qualities and state your thoughts about them, as: "This book and the blackboard are black." What are the connecting ideas?

Form ideas of objects at your home that are alike in some particular and state your thoughts. What are the connecting ideas?

Select objects having similar actions and state your thoughts. What are the connecting ideas?

Select objects either one or the other of which has a certain quality, and state your thoughts, as: "Either glass or lead is brittle." What are the connecting ideas?

[This exercise should be continued and varied to suit the ability of the learner until the connecting ideas that unite other ideas of *like relations* in the thoughts are readily discovered.]

25. Conjunction-ideas. If you observe closely the examples you have studied you will note that the connective in each of these cases joins ideas holding the *same rank* (*like relations*) in the thought. The importance of noting this peculiarity will appear later in your study.

Connecting ideas that unite other ideas having like relations in the thought are called **conjunction-ideas**.

26. Copula-idea. Supply the connecting ideas in the following: Gold — malleable. Lead — heavy. Copper — useful. Illinois — a state. Cicero — an orator. Washington — the first President.

When we think of the Baldwin apple with reference to its flavor our thought is, The apple — tart. When we think of sugar with reference to its flavor our thought is, Sugar — sweet.

Notice what is the office in the thought of the idea you supply in each case. It connects the ideas, *sugar* and *sweet*, by asserting or stating that *sweet* belongs to *sugar*; *sugar is sweet*.

When one thinks "sweet apple," or "apple sweet," he does not connect the attribute with the object by a connecting idea. But when we think "apple is sweet" we connect the attribute with the object by the asserting idea *is*.

Long ago it was decided to call this asserting or linking idea the *copula* (bond or coupler). It connects other ideas, and so belongs to the general class of connecting ideas. But it connects by *asserting* that one idea is an attribute of another. The *conjunction* never asserts. Note the difference between

John *and* the boy,
and
John *is* the boy.

27. The *copula-idea* is that which *asserts* that an attribute-idea belongs to an object-idea.

28. Point out the *conjunction-ideas* and the *copula-ideas* in the following: The winter is chill. The trees and the grass are green. The mountain and the squirrel were unfriendly. Beauty and truth are kindred. The man or the boy was mistaken. Not the orange but the apple is sweet.

[Before proceeding to the next topic, sufficient practice should be given in classifying ideas to make the learner familiar with—

1. Object-ideas.

2. Attribute-ideas { of quality.
of action.

3. Connecting-ideas { uniting ideas of the same rank in thought,
—*Conjunction*.
uniting ideas that assert the attribute-
idea of the object-idea,—*Copula*.

In a succeeding lesson the learner will discover other kinds of ideas that the mind may have.]

CHAPTER II.

NATURE OF THOUGHTS.

29. You have now learned that some of our ideas are the mental images of sense-objects. Every sense-object may stimulate the mind to form an idea corresponding to it. These sense-objects have attributes and the mind forms attribute-ideas corresponding to these sense-attributes.

You have also learned that the mind is furnished with connecting ideas that join its object-ideas and attribute-ideas together in different ways.

30. How a Thought is Formed. Declare that some attribute belongs to this book. You say, *The book is useful*.

When you affirm that the attribute *useful* belongs to the object *book* you form a **thought**.

The attribute-idea *useful* is connected with the object-idea *book* by the asserting idea *is*.

Think some attribute as belonging to your mother. You think, *Mother is kind*. This is a thought. Of what is it composed? (The object-idea *mother*, the attribute-idea *kind*, and the asserting idea *is*.)

Of what are the following thoughts composed?

My cat is playful.

The sun was sinking.

Longfellow is inspiring.

Washington was brave.

Make, in a similar way, thoughts about the moon; the winter; the snow; the roses; the sparrows; the elephant; the ostrich.

Of what ideas is each thought composed? What kind of connecting idea does each thought have?

Are thoughts internal or external to the mind? What of sense-objects?

31. A judgment is formed when an attribute is asserted of an object.

A judgment and a thought are one and the same thing.

What are the three essential ideas in every judgment? [Object-idea (subject), attribute-idea (predicate-attribute), asserting idea (copula).]

32. Form a judgment about the weather; the sun; the stars; Washington; Patrick Henry; San Francisco; Lake Superior; the Mississippi River.

Name the three essential ideas in each judgment.

[1. Care should be taken in these lessons not to confuse *ideas* with *words*; nor *thoughts* with *sentences*. It is by conversation that pupils will most easily learn to direct attention to the internal ideas, and distinguish them from the external objects of which they are counterparts, and from the words which are the sense-symbols of these ideas. Writing sentences upon the blackboard will not help to do this. The teacher should keep steadily in mind that the purpose of these first lessons is to make the pupil familiar with his *ideas* and *judgments* as something different from the words by which he expresses them, and from the sense-objects to which they refer. This may be the first time in his experience that he makes this distinction.

2. In Section 1 it was stated that people use language to express their *ideas* and *thoughts*. Words are not symbols of the objects themselves, but of our *ideas* of them. Persons differ about things because they form different ideas of them. In Grammar we learn how *words* and *sentences* are related to the *ideas* and *thoughts* which they express. (See Section 3.) In this study, therefore, we must consider *words* and *sentences* in their relation to *ideas* and *thoughts* alone. When we form a judgment about anything it is our idea of that thing about which the judgment is formed. We have been calling it the object-idea in order to distinguish it from the external thing, or sense-object. But this object-idea is the object about which the judgment is formed. No judgment can be formed except about an object-idea. It is proper to consider the *object-idea* as the object about which we think, and the *attribute-idea* as the attribute

ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

[It will be noticed therefore, in dropping the article, that the subject-idea and the object-idea are now identical and it is necessary to distinguish between them by calling one an attribute-idea and the other an object-idea. It is object-ideas that we think and talk about; and it is object-ideas that are the subjects of sentences.]

33 Subject of Thought. When we think, *The sun is bright*, we assert that the attribute *bright* belongs to the object *sun*. The *sun* is a thought about which the attribute-idea *bright* is asserted. This is called the *thought-subject*.

It is impossible to form a thought unless one has in mind some object-idea. This thought-subject is an object-idea. When you think, *Rain is falling from the clouds*, the object-idea *rain* is a thought-subject, but the idea *clouds* is not, though it is an attribute-idea. But when you think, *The clouds are very black*, the thought is formed of which *clouds* is the thought-subject.

34 Subject of thought is an object-idea of which **subject-idea** is asserted.

EXERCISES.

35. Make judgments by asserting something of the following object-ideas: England; Hiawatha; Robinson Crusoe; La Fayette; steam; electricity; ice; oranges; etc.

What is the subject of each of the judgments you have formed?

Thoughts = the thought-subject of each of the following

- The dog carried a basket.
- The soldier thinks of his home.
- The mason builds a wall.
- Flowers grow in the garden.
- The prisoners are guilty.
- The horse is dead.
- The book is on the table.

State what is asserted of the thought-subject in each of the above judgments.

36. Predicate of Thought. You have seen that every judgment has a thought-subject, and also something that is asserted of the subject; as, *The wind is blowing*.

That which is asserted of the subject in this judgment is called the **thought-predicate**. Make a definition of the thought-predicate.

[Justify the name *predicate* (proclaim—speak forth) for this part of the thought by studying its derivation in the dictionary.]

EXERCISES.

37. Assert a single attribute as belonging to each of the following object-ideas: Chair (the chair is useful); dictionary; crayon; Cicero; Patrick Henry; Homer; Chicago; New Orleans.

What is the subject of each thought? What is the predicate of each thought?

Predicate two attributes of the following subjects, and join the attributes by conjunctive ideas: George (George was honest and truthful); our school; our class; this school-house; our state; our president; our soldiers.

Connect the following parts of judgments by appropriate asserting ideas (copulas) so as to form complete thoughts:

George Washington — wise.

Daniel Webster — eloquent

Klondike — far away.

New York — our largest city.

Benedict Arnold — a traitor

The Spaniards — brave.

Point out the thought-subject and thought-predicate in each of the judgments.

[Let the pupils analyze a large number of thoughts into subject and predicate. It will be better at first to analyze the judgments they themselves make about things. They can then tell better what idea or combination of ideas they intend to make, the subject or the

predicate, because they first construct the thought before analyzing it. If they shall combine several attribute-ideas with the subject-idea to make the complete subject of thought, it will be well. Let them do the same in constructing the predicate. The essential thing is to have them see just what is the whole of that about which they think, and the whole of that which they think of it. Next let them analyze thoughts given orally by the teacher. This gives them practice in interpreting the language of others. Let them take the arithmetic and analyze statements in to-morrow's examples.]

DEFINITIONS—A REVIEW.

38. *An idea* is a notion in the mind that may be used in forming thoughts.

Complete the following thoughts by supplying appropriate ideas:

The dog is — at the moon.

A — was singing among the —.

I prefer — to sour —.

Six — seven are —.

[Let the pupils tell their thoughts, omitting certain ideas which the other members of the class supply.]

39. *An object-idea* is the notion of some object of which some attribute may be predicated.

Supply appropriate object-ideas to complete the following thoughts:

— was the first president of the —.

Longfellow was the — of the poem, —.

The — is the largest — in South America.

[Let the pupils make similar exercises.]

40. *An attribute-idea* is the notion of some attribute that may be predicated of an object.

Supply appropriate attribute-ideas to complete the following thoughts:

Under the — chestnut tree

The — smithy stands.

It was a —— day in June, when, if ever, come —— days.
The dew was —— fast.

The —— breath of the flowers gave delight.

[Let the pupils make many such exercises. They will find it an interesting test of each other's knowledge of quotations from different authors.]

41. A *connecting-idea* is a notion that joins together two parts of the thought.

Complete the following thoughts by supplying appropriate connecting ideas. Distinguish the conjunctive from the copula connectives:

Time —— tide wait for no man.

She was his care, his hope, —— his delight.

The birds —— migrating.

The pupils —— studious.

The breath of the morn —— sweet.

The gently falling rain —— refreshing the earth.

The warm sunshine —— pleasant.

The evening —— the morning —— the first day.

The rain —— upon the earth forty days —— forty nights.

[Let the pupils test one another with many exercises in which both conjunctive and copula connectives are omitted. Encourage them to select these from the literature with which they are familiar.]

42. A *thought* or *judgment* is composed of ideas some of which form the subject, and the others, the predicate.

Supply thought-subjects to the following predicates:

—— surrendered at Santiago.

—— was the father of his country.

—— was a traitor.

—— is the capital of the United States.

[Let the pupils compose thoughts and tell the subject, the class supplying an appropriate predicate. The teacher can add much to the interest of these exercises, as suggested above, by making them tests of the pupils' knowledge of scientific facts, historical events, or quotations from literature.]

CHAPTER III.

IDEAS AND THEIR EXPRESSION.

CLASSES OF IDEAS AND OF WORDS.

43. Object-Ideas and Object-Words. You learned in the former chapters that the mind furnishes itself with different kinds of ideas by studying and thinking about external objects. You discovered three distinct classes of these ideas which are—

1. Object-ideas.
2. Attribute-ideas.
3. Connecting-ideas.

The most common way of expressing our ideas to others is by the use of *words*.

Express ideas by gesture; by expression of the face; by maps; by pictures.

Write down the *names* of ten different objects in the room. Let one of these be the *clock*. What is the difference between the *word* *clock* and the *sense-object* *clock*?

Close your eyes and form the mental picture, or object-idea, of the *clock*.

What is the difference between this object-idea and the word? (The object-idea is the notion in the mind; the word *clock* is the sign or name, written or spoken, of that notion or object-idea.)

44. Words which denote object-ideas may be called object-words.

EXERCISES.

45. Distinguish between the object-ideas and the object-words in each of the following:

Forests disappear.

(The *idea*, forests, is the picture that I form in my mind of large collections of trees. The *word*, forests, is the group of letters used in writing it, or the group of sounds used in speaking it.)

Mary plays with her doll.

Friends, Romans, countrymen! Lend me your ears!

Gold is a metal.

Every horse and every ox was stolen.

Trees in winter are bare.

The dog, the horse, and the elephant are intelligent.

The moon revolves around the earth.

[Let the pupils express thoughts orally and distinguish between the idea and the spoken word. Vary the exercise and continue it until the class can separate in their thought the idea from the word.]

CLASSES OF OBJECT-WORDS.

46. Nouns. When the object-word is the *name* of the object it is called a **noun**; as horse, ball, wagon, John.

Why select this name for object-words? (See dictionary.)

Point out the nouns in the reading lesson, and form the ideas which they name.

47. The Pronoun. In the command, "Physician, heal thyself," what word is the name of an object? What other word denotes the same object? Is "thyself" a name?

Point out the object-words that are names and those that are not names in the following:

The mother had a picture of her son, but it was not a good likeness of him.

How many object-ideas in the judgment? Which are names?

48. We have now discovered that there are object-words that are not names. These are called **pronouns**.

Why so called? (See dictionary.)

Point out ten pronouns in the reading lesson. In what do they resemble nouns? In what do they differ from nouns?

49. If we say that a noun is a word that denotes an object-idea by giving it a name, we may say that a pronoun is a word that denotes an object-idea without giving it a name.

Make a definition of a noun that shall distinguish it from a pronoun; of a pronoun, that shall distinguish it from a noun.

From our study it seems that every *word* that denotes an *object-idea* but does not give it a name may be called a *pronoun*. Let us keep this in mind and see how it will appear later.

TEST QUESTIONS.

50. What is an object-idea?

What is an object-word?

What classes of object-words have we discovered?

What is a noun?

What is a pronoun?

How does a pronoun resemble a noun?

How does a pronoun differ from a noun?

ATTRIBUTE-IDEAS AND ATTRIBUTE-WORDS.

51. The Adjective. In chapter I. you discovered that object-ideas may have attribute-ideas belonging to them. (Page 13.)

You learned also that such attributes may be—

1. Attributes of *quality*.
2. Attributes of *action*.

Name some qualities of the rose. Name some actions of the clock. To express these attributes in language we use *attribute-words*.

What are the attribute-words in the following: Beautiful snow; freezing weather; brilliant music; delicious flavor; hopeful spirit; happy homes; joyous children; sour grapes.

What kind of attributes are expressed by these attribute-words?

What are the attribute-words in the following: Flowing rivers; babbling brooks; barking dogs; winning ways; pouring rain; helping hands; encouraging words; falling snow; the cawing crow; the crawling worm; the growing corn; the revolving earth.

What attribute-ideas do these words express?

52. Words that denote attributes of objects, whether qualities or actions, are **adjectives**.

Justify this name by its derivation. (See dictionary.)

Point out the adjectives in your reading lesson and state whether they express qualities or actions.

53. Make a definition of the adjective that will include what you have learned.

When we describe an object we state one or more of its attributes. A complete description would express all of its attributes. (Objects can have other attributes than those of quality or action. We shall learn about those later.)

Describe your desk by stating three attributes of quality of it; the school-house; the weather; the roses; the robins; the ocean.

Describe the earth by giving two attributes of action belonging to it; the wind; the season; the governor; the superintendent; the farmer; the carpenter; the merchant.

[The term *attribute* is used in grammar in the limited and technical sense described in the preceding pages. You will discover later that it has other meanings in literature.]

EXERCISES.

54. Point out the adjectives in the following, and state whether they express qualities or actions of the objects:

The fragrant flowers and the singing birds are expressing thanks.

Summer is warm.

Winter is cold.

Wise men are respected.

The army was victorious.

The lark now leaves his watery nest.

The giddy multitude is not always judicious.

Thy songs are sweeter to mine ear
Than to the thirsty cattle rivers clear.

On a green shady bank profuse of flowers,
Pensive I sat.

The cloud lay cradled near the setting sun.

His pencil was striking, resistless, and grand ;
His manners were gentle, complying, and bland.

55. The Adverb. Thus far you have studied only that class of attributes which belong to object-ideas. Can other ideas have attributes ?

When you think of the *swiftly running brook* you think that the brook has the attribute *running* belonging to it, and also that the action, *running*, is *swift*. So, when we think of the *slowly rising moon*, the action of *rising* belongs to the moon, and *slowly* belongs to the rising. It is a *slow* rising. When we think of the *sweetly singing birds*, the singing belongs to the birds and the sweetness belongs to the singing. *Singing* has the quality *sweet*, *rising* has the quality *slow*, and *running* has the quality *swift*. That is, the idea *sweetly* is an attribute of the action of the birds, the idea *slowly* is an attribute of the action of the moon, and the idea *swiftly* is an attribute of the action of the brook.

56. It now appears that attributes of objects can themselves have other attributes belonging to them.

There are, therefore, two classes of attributes:

1. Attributes of objects.
2. Attributes of other attributes.

57. Point out the attribute-words in the following, and state whether an attribute of an object or an attribute of an attribute is expressed.

I bear round berries, gray and red,
Rootless and rover though I be.

The spirit of night is swiftly
Walking o'er the restless wave.

The lamp was shining brightly, and the nightingale was sweetly singing in the tree.

A merry brown thrush is up in the tree.
I am willingly and gladly obedient.

You have now discovered two classes of words that denote attribute-ideas; these are *adjectives* and *adverbs*.

58. Adjectives are words that denote attributes of objects.

59. Adverbs are words that denote attributes of other attributes.

How do adverbs resemble adjectives?

How do adverbs differ from adjectives?

EXERCISES.

60. Point out the adverbs in the following: What attribute-ideas do they denote? What attribute-ideas do they modify?

The slowly tolling bell was heard.

The man was running hurriedly through the streets.

A fine mist falling steadily gave discomfort.

Ulysses, joyfully spreading his sails, moved out to sea.

The swiftly flying clouds foretold a storm.

He was strictly honest.

The birds are singing sweetly.

Still waters are commonly the deepest.

They have been long absent.

He is improving mentally and physically.

[Select from the reading lesson the adverbs. Exercises in forming thoughts containing adverbial ideas and in pointing out the adverbs expressed in selected sentences should be continued until the pupils can readily distinguish between an adverb and an adjective, and between an adverbial idea and an adjective idea. If pupils discover and offer as illustrations adjective or adverbial phrases or clauses, accept them, for the great point here is the adjective and adverbial function or relation.]

EXERCISES.

Insert appropriate adverbs to complete the following sentences:

— and — we laid him down,

From the field of his fame fresh and gory.

The thunder rolls — and the lightning flashes —.

The thief — approached.

We welcome you —.

Point out the adverbs in the following. What attribute-words do they make more definite in meaning?

He was walking slowly down the stairs.

She was speaking quickly and angrily.

The deep blue sky contrasted pleasantly with the dark green foliage.

Gently falling rain.

Slowly moving clouds.

Deep blue sea.

Deliciously fragrant roses.

He was strictly honest.

He was speaking loudly when suddenly the bell struck the hour.

Oh tenderly the haughty day,
Fills the blue urn with fire.

Go, forget me, and to-morrow
Brightly smile and sweetly sing.

TEST QUESTIONS.

- 61.** What classes of words have you considered in this chapter? What classes of ideas do they denote?

Ideas	{	Object-ideas.		
		Attribute-ideas	{	Attributes of objects. Attributes of attributes.
Words	{	Object-words	{	Nouns. Pronouns.
		Attribute-words	{	Adjectives. Adverbs.

CONNECTING-IDEAS AND CONNECTING-WORDS.

- 62. The Verb.** I show to you this yellow rose. I now remove it. You have an idea in your minds of a yellow rose. You perceive that *yellow* is a quality of the rose without forming a judgment about it. But if some one should call the rose you have in mind a *white* rose, you would immediately think, *It is not white; the rose is yellow.* You have now asserted or declared that the attribute *yellow* belongs to the rose, and that *white* does not. In the former case you formed an *idea* of a yellow-rose. Now you have formed a thought or judgment in which you assert, *The rose is yellow.* Suppose some one should say, *The rose is poisonous.* This would be adding an attribute that you would judge did not belong to the rose, and you would think, *The rose is not poisonous.*

In both of these cases you have so joined the ideas as to form a judgment. You have joined them by asserting or declaring that *yellow* is an attribute of the rose you have in mind, and that *poisonous* is not. This *asserting idea* is, therefore, a *connecting idea*, which joins the other ideas so as

to form a judgment by affirming or denying the predicate of the subject.

63. What are the appropriate asserting ideas to complete the following thoughts?

Apples — nutritious. Water — a food. Solomon — a wise man. The sun — shining now in the Philippines. London — the largest city in the world. London — directly east of Boston. The Filipinos — an enlightened people. Glass — malleable. Snow — white. Man — mortal. Virtue — its own reward. The sun — black. The storm — gathering. To-morrow — Friday.

[Extend this exercise until the pupils have it clearly in mind that the function of the verb-idea is so to connect the predicate and the subject as to form a judgment. Improve, also, the opportunity suggested by the above exercise to induce the pupils to think real live thoughts that they believe to be true, instead of merely filling the blanks so as to complete the form or symbol of the thought without filling it with meaning.]

64. The word that expresses the asserting idea in a judgment is called a **verb**.

This name is from the Latin *verbum*, which means *the word*. As the verb-idea is necessary to the thought, connecting the thought-subject with the thought-predicate, so the verb-word is the essential word in the sentence, connecting the sentence subject with the sentence-predicate.

65. Point out the *verbs* in the following:

Second thoughts are ever wiser.

A bad beginning makes a bad ending. (*Makes* expresses the asserting idea and also an action.)

The gifts of a bad man bring no good with them.

Prosperity makes friends, adversity tries them.

Guilty consciences make people cowards.

Temperance and labor are the two best physicians.

Spices and jewels
From valley and sea,
Armies and banners,
Are buried in thee.

[The fact that every thought must have an asserting idea in it, and that every sentence must have a word that expresses this asserting idea, can very properly be introduced here, although it will be considered more fully in the next chapter. The pupils should study only declarative sentences in which the verbs are clearly *asserting* words. The stress should be laid, however, upon the connecting function of the verb-idea in asserting the predicate-attribute of the subject.]

66. The Preposition. Where is this pencil? (On the book.) Where is it now? (Under the book.) Now? (Behind the book.) Now? (Beside the book.)

What word denotes your idea of the relation of the pencil to the book in the first case? In the second, etc.?

When we think that *the book is on the table* the idea denoted by *on* connects our idea of the book to the idea of the table in such a way as to show the place of the book in relation to the table. A different relation is expressed by *over* than by *under* or *beside*. These all express relations of place.

Sometimes the relations are those of time; as, *The bear sleeps during the winter*. The time of the sleeping is the winter season.

Sometimes the relation is that of material; as, *A ring of gold was found among the ruins*.

There are other relations between ideas of which we shall learn later; such as manner, possession, and the like.

Ideas of these relations of time, place, material, manner, and others are called **preposition-ideas**.

Fill in the preposition-ideas in the following thoughts and state the relation expressed.

A bird — the hand is worth two — the bush.

They glide — phantoms — the wide hall.

He dove — the sea and ascended — the water —
a dry cave — the rocks.

Make thoughts that have preposition-ideas in them.

[We repeat here the suggestion made on a preceding page that a lively interest can be awakened by having the pupils state facts in science, or in history, or give quotations from literature, omitting from the statement some element of the sentence which the class shall supply. It thus becomes a test of knowledge beyond that of the particular word called for.]

67. A word used as the sign of a preposition-idea is called a **preposition**.

The preposition-idea always relates an object-idea to some other idea upon which it depends in the thought. An examination of prepositions in sentences will show that a preposition always connects some object-word (noun or pronoun) to some other word whose meaning the object word modifies. The words connected never hold the same rank in the sentence.

68. Point out the prepositions in the following sentences and tell what words they connect :

The pupil was absent without leave.

The dish ran away with the spoon.

Europe is beyond the ocean.

And in the cottage churchyard, I
Dwell near them with my mother.

The spirit of your fathers
Shall start from every wave.

The flame that lit the battle's wreck
Shone round him o'er the dead.

69. The Conjunction. Supply the idea in the following that will connect the thoughts into one larger thought:

The rain descended — the floods came.

The weather was cold — no one suffered severely.

Send for me — you want me.

It is true — my father was here.

When we think, *The evening comes and the dew begins to fall*, the connecting idea *and* joins the two thoughts into one larger thought. (Thoughts like ideas may be connected by conjunctive-ideas.) The use which distinguishes the conjunction-idea from the preposition-idea is that the latter connects ideas only, while the former may connect thoughts as well as ideas. Other differences will appear further on in our study.

Fill out the following thoughts with appropriate conjunction-ideas:

Blessed are the merciful — they shall obtain mercy.

Love not sloth — thou come to poverty.

He ran to the station — he missed the train.

Troy was taken — brave men defended it.

Little Bo-Peep fell fast asleep

— dreamed she heard them bleating.

[Let the pupils give similar tests to one another.]

70. A word that expresses a conjunction-idea is called a **conjunction**.

71. Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences and tell what they connect:

Pierre is French and Karl is German.

Annie is clever but her brother is a genius.

The father retired for he was tired.

My friend came though the storm raged fiercely.

I do not know how old you are,

Or whether you can speak,

But you may twinkle all night long,

And play at hide and seek.

72. SYNOPSIS FOR REVIEW.

Ideas.

Object-ideas.

Attribute-ideas { Qualities.
Actions.

Connecting-ideas { Copula-ideas.
Conjunction-ideas.
Preposition-ideas.

Words.

Object-words { Nouns.
Pronouns.

Attributive-words { Adjectives.
Adverbs.

Connecting-words { Verbs.
Conjunctions.
Prepositions.

[Let the pupils make definitions of these different kinds of ideas and different classes of words. They should construct them from what they have acquired in the previous study and not seek them ready made from books. These definitions will be tentative, of course, but it is an excellent discipline for the learners to form definitions of things as they appear at different stages of their advancement in the knowledge of a subject.]

TEST QUESTIONS.

73. What different kinds of ideas do we use in thinking? How many distinct classes of words do these ideas call for?

State likenesses and differences between the noun and the pronoun.

In what are adjectives and adverbs alike?

In what do they differ?

What two kinds of attributes may adjectives denote?

How does a conjunction differ from a preposition? When a preposition is used which one of the words that it connects is always an object-word?

EXERCISE.

74. Name each part of speech in the following sentences and tell its office in expressing the thought:

A high wind shook the windows violently.

EXAMPLE: *A* is an adjective, telling how many; *high* is an adjective, telling the quality of the wind; *shook* is a verb, asserting the action of the wind; *the* is an adjective, pointing out definitely the windows; *windows* is a noun, naming the objects shaken; *violently* is an adverb, telling the quality of the shaking.

The City of Mexico is high above the level of the sea.

A tree is known by its fruits.

With much labor our fathers felled the forests which covered the hillsides and filled the river valleys.

The baby was sleeping;

Its mother was weeping,

For her husband was far on the wild, raging sea.

Stalwart and stately in form

Was the man of seventy winters.

Beautiful feet are they that go

Swiftly to lighten another's woe.

I sat and watched her many a day

When her eyes grew dim and her locks were gray.

This is the forest primeval; but where are the hearts
that beneath it

Leaped like the roe when it hears in the woodland the
voice of the huntsman?

Mont Blanc is the monarch of the Alps.

CHAPTER IV.

THOUGHTS AND THEIR EXPRESSION.

75. You learned on page 18 that thoughts are composed of ideas, and how these ideas are connected so as to form judgments.

Form a judgment about the stove. (The stove is hot.) What is the object-idea in this judgment? the attribute-idea? the asserting (connecting) idea?

Form a thought about the blackboard. (The blackboard is useful.) What is the attribute-idea? What kind of an attribute? What is the asserting-idea? What is the object-idea?

Think, *The night is coming*. Name all the ideas.

Think, *A storm is gathering*. What is that about which something is thought? What is thought of the subject?

You note that in each of the preceding thoughts there is an object-idea, and an attribute-idea, and an idea that asserts or affirms the attribute of the subject. Each of these thoughts is formed by affirming an attribute-idea of an object-idea. The asserting-idea connects the attribute-idea with the object-idea in such a way as to make a judgment.

Unite the following ideas so as to form a thought: *month, roses, the, is, of, June*.

Name the object-idea that is the subject of the thought formed.

Name the asserting-idea.

What words show that which is asserted of the subject?

Supply the asserting-ideas that are wanting in the following thoughts:

The minstrel — infirm and old.

Four large, rosy peaches — lying on the plate.

Texas — a very large state.

White and red roses — scattered before the queen's chariot.

The wind — blowing furiously.

[Let the pupils practice similar exercises prepared by the teacher and by themselves until they become familiar with the fact that every thought has the three constituent ideas of *object-idea used as the subject of the thought, attribute-idea, and asserting or linking idea.*]

76. A thought, or judgment, is formed when we think something about an object.

(In all the lessons in this book care must be taken not to confuse the *words* with the *ideas* and *thoughts* of which the *words* are merely signs.)

EXERCISES.

77. Point out the three essential ideas in each of the following thoughts:

The bird is singing.

The dew was falling.

The dog was carrying a basket.

(*The dog* is the thought-subject; *was* is the asserting-idea; *carrying a basket* is the attribute of action asserted of the subject.)

The workmen are building a wall.

The boy was studying his lessons.

The girl was expecting her aunt.

The river is very large.

The family was happy.

Annie is going.

78. You learned in Section 34 that the subject of thought is an object-idea about which something is affirmed.

In Section 36 you learned that the predicate of thought is that which is affirmed of the subject.

You have now discovered that this predicate has two ideas in it:

1. The *affirming, or stating, idea.*
2. The *attribute* that is affirmed of the subject.

The asserting-idea of the thought is called the **copula**.

The attribute-idea that is affirmed or stated is called the **predicate-attribute**. It is called *predicate* because it is predicated of the subject. It is called *attribute* because it is a quality, or action, or some other characteristic of the subject.

79. The Thought-Subject. In the thought, *The storm wind howled in rage*, the object-idea *wind* and the attribute-idea *storm* are together the subject of the thought. It was not the *gentle wind* nor the *morning wind* that howled, but the *storm wind*.

All the ideas that, taken together, make that about which something is predicated are the **thought-subject**.

80. Point out the entire thought-subject in each of the following thoughts. Point out the other object-ideas and the modifying ideas:

The pitch of the musical note depends upon the rapidity of the vibration.

All forms of the lever are found in the human body.
The hero of the Book of Job came from a strange land.
The potent rod of Aurora's son waved round the coast.
Each horseman drew his battle blade.
The good south wind still blew behind.

81. The Thought-Predicate. All that is affirmed of the subject, together with the asserting-idea, forms the **thought-predicate**.

Point out the entire thought-predicate in each of the foregoing judgments.

82. The *predicate-attribute* may consist of one or more attribute-ideas.

In the judgment, *Barbara Frietchie's work is o'er*, the idea *over* is the attribute affirmed of her work. It is the state or condition of it. Here the predicate-attribute consists of a single idea.

In the thought, *The rebel is riding on his raid*, the entire predicate-attribute is composed of the attribute of action, *riding*, and the modifying ideas, *on his raid*.

EXERCISE.

Point out the entire predicate-attribute in each of the following judgments.

Point out the principal idea in each predicate-attribute, and its modifying ideas.

Point out the words that express the asserting-idea.

Point out the words that express the entire thought-predicate, including the asserting-idea and the predicate-attribute.

The soldier is sadly thinking of his home.

Wellington was a British general.

Flowers are growing in the garden.

The visitor was speaking of his adventures.

The Romans were good road-makers.

The warm sun is failing,

The bleak wind is wailing,

The bare boughs are sighing,

The pale flowers are dying.

New York is the largest city in America.

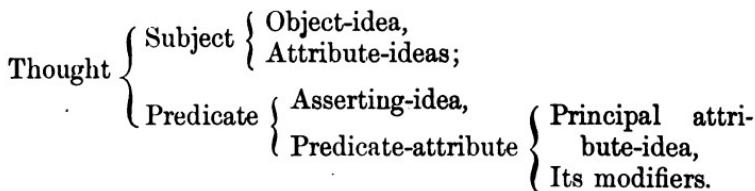
Honesty is the best policy.

GENERAL STATEMENTS—A REVIEW.

83. 1. The *thought-subject* is that about which something is asserted.

2. The *thought-predicate* is that which is asserted of the subject.
3. The thought-subject is composed of—
 - (1) The object-idea and
 - (2) All of its modifying ideas.
4. The thought-predicate is composed of—
 - (1) The asserting-idea and
 - (2) All the ideas that are asserted of the subject, called the *predicate-attribute*.
5. The predicate-attribute is composed of—
 - (1) An attribute-idea and
 - (2) All of its modifiers.

84. SYNOPSIS.



ANALYSIS.

85. Classify the ideas in the following thoughts:

Angry clouds are rising rapidly.

(Example—1. *Angry clouds* are the ideas that form the thought-subject. 2. *Are rising rapidly* are the ideas that form the thought-predicate. 3. The unmodified object-idea in the subject is *clouds*. 4. The attribute-idea belonging to the subject is *angry*. 5. The asserting-idea in the predicate is *are*. 6. The predicate-attribute idea is *rising rapidly*. 7. *Rapidly* is the modifying idea of the attribute *rising*.)

Winter days are freezing cold.

Autumn days are sad.

Beautiful spring is coming rapidly.

Large birds are flying leisurely.

Some men are hopelessly stupid.
June days are extremely fine.
George is a blacksmith.
The prisoners are guilty.
Wellington was a great general.
The dew is falling fast.
The fishermen were very hungry.
The boys are playing.
The oranges were dear.
He was a good man.
Some savages are cannibals.
The slave is now free.
The pretty bird is singing.

[This exercise should be continued until the pupils can readily classify the ideas in thoughts like the above. Use only such thoughts as permit the ideas to be expressed, each in a separate word. Avoid confounding the ideas with the words which are their signs. It is the relation of ideas and their attributes, and not of words, that is here considered. Printed and written sentences should be avoided as much as possible except when the *expression* of the thought is the subject of study. In the study of how thoughts are composed by uniting ideas, oral language is much less confusing than written. The spoken word seems more like the idea, to most people, than does the written word. Work slowly through these first chapters. If Part I. is well mastered, the remainder of the book can be finished in a short time.]

COMPOSITION.

86. Make thoughts, using the following subjects, and distinguish the subject from the predicate:

Barbara Frietchie; Mother Hubbard; Dr. Johnson; King Arthur; Australia; Abraham.

(When the thought is not too complex for the pupils' present attainments, let the ideas be classified as above.)

Select six subjects from objects in the school-room.

Select six from objects in the vicinity.

Select six from geography.

Select six from literature.

HOW THOUGHTS ARE EXPRESSED.

87. Thoughts and ideas would be of little value unless one could express them to others. There are several ways of expressing our thoughts. We can tell what we think and feel :

1. By different bodily movements, called gestures.
2. By different expressions of the face.
3. By maps and pictures.
4. By words, both spoken and written.
5. By exclamations.
6. By playing upon a musical instrument.
7. By singing, and in other ways.

[Let the pupils practice these different ways of expressing their thoughts. The teacher asks questions, suggests pleasant and unpleasant ideas, and asks pupils to respond by motions, or by facial expressions. Let them make pictures and maps of their homes or of the school-house or school-room, and compare the clearness of the description by pictures with a description by words. The purpose is to make clear the distinction between our thoughts and the different signs we use to make these thoughts known to others. Encourage some pupils to talk in pantomime and others to interpret in words. Let one child describe in words how a person looks, or walks, or talks, and another by imitation. Which signs express the thoughts most clearly?]

THE SENTENCE.

In how many different ways can you express your thought of a thunder-storm ?

Express your thought of the weather in words. (The weather is pleasant.) When we use words to express our thoughts we form **sentences**.

88. A sentence is a word or group of words that expresses a thought.

How do sentences differ from thoughts ?

How does a sentence resemble a thought ?

Make a thought about the Philippine Islands.

Express this thought in words.

What ideas taken together make the thought-subject ?
What words taken together make the sentence-subject ?
How does the thought-predicate differ from the sentence-predicate ?

KINDS OF THOUGHTS AND OF SENTENCES.

86. The Different Kinds of Thoughts. Declare something about the pencil. (The pencil is soft.) Here we simply affirm an attribute of the subject. The judgment is declarative. This is the unmodified form of the judgment.

90. Ask some question about the pencil. (Where is the pencil?) Here the predicate-attribute of the thought is unknown and asked for; as, *The pencil is —?* You can supply the missing element in the thought and think that *the pencil is on the table*.

The inquiry is called an interrogative judgment. It is a modified form of the declarative judgment.

When the missing element is supplied a declarative judgment is formed.

Make a thought which asks for the subject; for an attribute of an object; for an adverbial attribute. (How is the bird singing?) Answer with a declarative judgment. (The bird is singing —.)

91. Command a dog to leave the room. (Go out !)

When a thought is a command it is an imperative judgment.

The thought may be one of entreaty; as, *Pardon me for my fault.* This calls for the same form of the judgment. It, too, is a modified form of a declarative judgment.

92. Make a thought that is accompanied with strong emotion. *How like a fawning publican he looks ! I hate him, for he is a Christian !*

Such a thought is an **exclamatory judgment**. Its form may be declarative, interrogative, or imperative, but strong feeling must attend it.

[Send the pupils to the dictionary to justify these names for the four different kinds of thoughts. Enough practice should be given in forming these different kinds of judgments to make the pupils familiar with their differences.]

KINDS OF SENTENCES NEEDED.

93. A sentence that asserts the predicate of the subject is a **declarative sentence**; as, *The buttercup catches the sun. Our slender life runs rippling by.* (It gives information.) This is the unmodified form of the sentence.

94. A sentence used in asking a question is an **interrogative sentence** (it seeks information;) as, *Who are the wise?* (subject asked for.) *Is thy work done?* (copula asked for.) *How did she receive you?* (predicate-modifier asked for.)

This is a modified form of the declarative sentence.

95. A sentence used in expressing a command or entreaty is an **imperative sentence**. It appeals to the will; as, *Dare to be true. Give us this day our daily bread.*

96. A sentence used to express a thought and also some strong emotion is an **exclamatory sentence**; as, *How wonderful is man! Oh that those lips had language!* It may be declarative, interrogative, or imperative in form.

EXERCISE.

97. To what class does each of the following sentences belong?

A little child shall lead them.

The dew was falling fast.

Who taught the bee with winds and rains to strive?

What is it to be wise?

Who makes it snow?

Lend me your ears.

Dare to be true.

Be not overcome of evil.

Forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors.

Oh that those lips had language!

How swiftly pass a thousand years!

Oh that I had wings like a dove!

COMPOSITION.

98. Form six *declarative* thoughts and express them in sentences.

Form six *interrogative* thoughts and express them in sentences.

Form six *imperative* thoughts and express them in sentences.

Form six *exclamatory* thoughts and express them in sentences.

CHAPTER V.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

99. In Chapter II. you learned that there are three distinct classes of ideas used in thinking. These are :

1. Object-ideas,
2. Attribute-ideas,
3. Connecting-ideas.

You also learned that there are two classes of attribute-ideas, viz. :

1. Attributes of objects,
2. Attributes of other attributes.

You also discovered three classes of connecting-ideas, viz. :

1. Connecting-ideas that join other *ideas* having different relations in the thought.
2. Connecting-ideas that unite *thoughts*,
3. A peculiar connecting-idea that *asserts* something of the thought-subject.

All of these ideas are expressed in language by *words*.

We need as many distinct classes of words as there are distinct classes of ideas to be expressed. These classes of words as we discovered in Chapter II. are :

1. Object-words { Nouns,
Pronouns ;
2. Attribute-words { Adjectives,
Adverbs ;
3. Connecting-words { Prepositions,
Conjunctions,
Copula.

100. The classes of words used to express the different classes of ideas we use in thinking are called **parts of speech.**

[It should be carefully noted and borne in mind that the descriptions that have been given of these parts of speech in the preceding pages have not been complete definitions. You have simply learned what is the distinguishing mark of each, by which it is set off from the others in a class by itself. For example: That which makes a conjunction different from a preposition is that it may express the connection of *thoughts*, while prepositions can only express the connection between *ideas*. A good deal of practice should be given at this point, and during the study of this chapter, in pointing out that particular function of a word which distinguishes a *noun* from a *pronoun*, or a *verb* from an *adjective*, or an *adjective* from an *adverb*, etc.

If the *distinguishing mark* of each part of speech shall be carefully noted at this stage of the study, the double or triple uses of some words will then be seen more clearly when they occur in the sentence.]

101. We will now note some additional peculiarities of the parts of speech you have previously studied, and learn also whether there are yet other parts of speech in the language.

THE NOUN.

102. A noun must be a *name* of some object-idea.

We shall find later that it may be a particular name given to only one object, as, *Mary*, or a general name applicable to each one of a class, as, *girl*; but it is always a *name*. No other part of speech is a name.

Note, too, that it is the name of some object-idea or sense-object. By this is meant that it is the name of an idea that is the subject of a thought, or that may be so used.

You will see later that other words may perform the office of nouns in a sentence, but they are not nouns if they are not *names* of the objects they denote.

103. Attributes Used as Object-Ideas. Not all object-ideas have sense-objects to correspond to them. In the sen-

tence, *Temperance is a virtue*, two attribute-ideas that are also object-ideas are expressed. Either *temperance* or *virtue* can have something predicated of it. They are *attributes* that are *thought apart* from the persons to whom they belong, and are used as object-ideas. The names of these attributes when used as object-ideas are *temperance* and *virtue*. When they are simply attributes of persons the words used to denote them are *temperate* and *virtuous*.

When we speak of a *virtuous man*, the quality *virtuous* is used as an attribute belonging to *man*. But when we say, *Virtue is its own reward*, the quality is viewed as an object-idea, and the name *virtue* is given to it. The attribute-idea is abstracted (thought apart) from its object and is itself used as an object-idea. Note that the *noun*, *virtue*, is a different word from the *adjective*, *virtuous*. But each denotes the attribute of the person and not the person who possesses the attribute.

104. The names of attributes used as object-ideas are called **abstract nouns**.

Point out the abstract nouns in the following:

Vice is a monster of hideous mien.

Beauty is entrancing.

Smoothness belongs to velvet.

Sugar has a sweetness different from that of honey.

Deep breathing is a healthful action.

What are the abstract nouns corresponding to the following adjectives? Hard; soft; credulous; timid; free; equal; feeble; sweet; large; rich; guilty.

[Give many illustrations of the difference between object-ideas of this class and those that are the images of sense-objects. The pupils will soon discover that most of the nouns used in language are the names of object-ideas that were originally attribute-ideas,—abstract nouns.]

105. Make a definition of a *noun* that shall include all you have learned about it in the preceding chapters.

THE PRONOUN.

106. Both nouns and pronouns are signs of object-ideas.

In the sentence, *The boy who studies will learn*, the word *boy* is the *name* of the subject about which we think, and *who* denotes the same person. *Boy* and *who* are signs of the same object-idea. But *who* is not a name. The word *boy* is a name common to a large class of objects, but there is no class of objects having the name *who*.

In the sentence, *The mother loves her child*, there are two object-ideas: the word *mother* names one of them and the word *child* the other. What word denotes one of these object-ideas without naming it? Which object-idea does it denote?

In the sentence, *Me thou didst make a priest*, which word is the name? Which are object-words but not names? What object does each denote?

107. Make a definition of the *pronoun* that shall distinguish it from the noun.

(From what you have learned the definition should declare that the pronoun is a *word*, that it is the *sign* of an *object-idea*, and that it is *not a name*.)

By this definition any word that denotes an object-idea, but is not its name, is a *pronoun*.

Point out the pronouns in the following:

Each spake to each.

When Moses heard that, he was content.

All were there.

All that breathe shall share thy destiny.

Some are born great; others achieve greatness.

108. There are several classes of pronouns, some of which have double uses. But they are all alike in that each

expresses an object-idea without naming it. In Part II. you will learn how they differ.

[Let the pupils have much practice in distinguishing between object-words that are names and those that are not names.]

THE ADJECTIVE.

109. You have learned that object-ideas may have attributes of quality or of action. The words that are signs of these attributes are called adjectives.

110. Other Attributes of Objects. In the sentence, *This book is interesting*, the word *this* shows what particular book is meant. It confines the meaning of the word *book* to a certain object pointed out. It merely limits the application of the word *book*. Some adjective-words limit the meaning of nouns by expressing quality; as, *red* apple—the meaning is limited to apples that are red; some, by expressing action; as, the *bellowing* thunder; and some merely set off or distinguish object-ideas without expressing either quality or action; as, *This pencil is soft*.

Attribute-words that merely restrict the meaning of nouns without denoting any other attribute are called **limiting adjectives**.

When we say, *An apple is larger than a cherry*, the size of the two is compared. The apple is large only in relation to the cherry. When compared with a pumpkin it is small. An attribute of relation refers to two or more objects.

Such adjectives express **attributes of relation**.

A word which expresses an attribute-idea that belongs to an object is an **adjective-word**.

An adjective-word may denote:

1. Quality of an object,—a *beautiful* garden.
2. Action of an object,—the rapidly *flowing* stream.
3. Limitation of the application of the noun; as, *This climate is healthful*.

4. Relation of one object to another,—John is *taller* than James.
5. Condition of an object; as, The teacher is *sick*.

THE ADVERB.

111. We learned on pages 28 and 29 that an adverb is a word that expresses some attribute of another attribute.

In the sentence, *The gently falling rain of spring quickly awakens the slumbering flowers*, what attribute is expressed of *falling*? Of *awakening*? We discover that it is a *gentle* falling and a *quick* awakening. These adverbs, *gently* and *quickly*, describe the other attributes to which the qualities *gentle* and *quick* belong by denoting their quality.

112. Not all adverbs express *quality* of other attributes. In the sentence, *He was abundantly able to fill the office*, the adverb, *abundantly*, expresses the quantity of his ability. So too, in, *My friend comes often to see me*, the adverb, *often*, expresses the frequency of the coming. There are many classes of adverbs, but all of them are alike in expressing attributes of other attributes.

Adverbs modify the meaning of attribute-words. They never modify the meaning of object-words.

113. Make a definition of *the adverb* that shall include what you have learned about it, being careful to distinguish it from an adjective.

THE VERB.

114. You have learned that in forming a judgment you connect the attribute-idea with the subject by the *copula*, or *asserting idea*. (See page 31.)

This asserting idea is expressed in language by the *verb*. No thought is complete unless this asserting or linking idea is in it, and no sentence is complete that does not contain a word or words that express this asserting idea.

Why have all English-speaking people united in calling this word the *verb*? (See dictionary.)

It is essential to the verb that it express this asserting or linking idea. What other idea may it express?

In the sentence, *The sun shines*, what is the asserting word? What does *shines* declare belongs to the sun? (The attribute *shining*.)

In the sentence, *The sun is shining*, two words are used to express the predicate. The asserting idea is expressed by *is*, and the attribute of action by *shining*.

When we say, *The sun shines*, the word *shines* has a double use. It is used to express the asserting idea, and it is also used to express the attribute of action (*shining*) that belongs to the sun.

115. Since *shines* asserts something of the subject, it is a *verb*. Since it also expresses the attribute, *shining*, of the sun, it is an **attributive verb**.

116. In the sentence, *The sun is shining*, the word *is* has only one use, which is the essential office of the verb. It is called a **pure verb** because its only office is to assert.

117. What two kinds of verbs have we discovered? Make a definition of each class.

THE PREPOSITION.

118. You have learned that a preposition connects *words* and expresses the relation of an *object-idea* to some other *idea*.

In the sentence, *The man in the moon is a myth*, the preposition *in* expresses a relation of *the moon* to *the man* so as to modify the idea *man*. What man is meant? The man *in the moon*.

119. The preposition generally indicates the modification of the meaning of some word in the sentence by a noun or pronoun. This is its peculiar office.

When we say, *He rode through the city, past the church, and by the lake*, what words are prepositions? Note that riding through the *city* is different from riding past the *church*, or by the *lake*. Each noun, *city*, *church*, and *lake*, modifies the meaning of *rode*.

120. Make a definition of the preposition that shall include what you have learned about it.

[The special work of each part of speech by which it differs from all others, as has been stated before, should be made as clear as possible. We shall find that one word may do the work of another, but each part of speech in a sentence has something distinctive and peculiar to itself, which we may call its mark. One important purpose of grammar study is to discover the exact value of words in expressing thought.]

THE CONJUNCTION.

121. You have learned that the conjunction may show the union of *ideas*, but that neither of the ideas so connected is a modifier of the other. They both hold the same rank in the thought.

How do conjunctions differ from prepositions?

How do they differ from the copula? (See page 31.)

What do the conjunctions connect in the following:

The sun and the moon and the stars are in the
heavens.

Six and four are ten.

God is truth and goodness and beauty.

A soldier or a sailor was in town.

Note whether the words connected by conjunctions have the same rank in the sentence.

You have learned also that the distinctive mark of a conjunction-idea is that it unites two or more thoughts into one larger thought. (See page 35.)

To show the union of thoughts into a larger thought, there must be a union of the sentences that express them into a larger sentence.

The words that thus connect sentences are called **conjunctions**.

It is the distinguishing mark of a conjunction that it connects sentences. It will be seen later that when it connects words these words really represent different sentences.

EXERCISE.

122. Name the part of speech to which each word in the following sentences belongs. Justify your classification before stating it.

Example—*Virtue* is its own reward.

Virtue is the name of an object-idea of which something is predicated,—Noun;

is expresses the idea that asserts the predicate of the subject,—Verb;

its denotes an object without naming it,—Pronoun;

own describes the reward,—Adjective;

reward names an object of which something might be predicated,—Noun.

The man brought two baskets of big red apples.

A fine mist fell steadily.

From the turrets round,

Loud hoots the startled owl.

He has hard work getting through the straw and hay
and twisted ropes.

Their little bodies were warm and their hearts were
merry.

The minstrel was infirm and old.

Ulysses spread his sails joyfully, and sailed away.

Birds of passage sailed through the leaden air from
the icebound, desolate northern bays to the shores
of tropical islands.

Firmly built with rafters of oak, the house of the
farmer stood on the side of a hill commanding
sea.

The firelight was gleaming on the windows.
Four large rosy peaches were lying on a white plate.
The people of tropical regions are usually indolent.
Texas is a very large state.
White and red roses were scattered before the queen's
chariot.
The task is done.
A thought, or judgment, is composed of ideas.
The bell rang but the children did not hear it.

THE INTERJECTION.

123. **The interjection** is the sign of a *feeling*, but not of an *idea*. It is not an element of the sentence, therefore, and does not properly belong to the parts of speech, for these are all signs of ideas.

Different feelings are expressed by different exclamations.

What feelings are expressed in the following?

Alas! pshaw! hey-day! hist! sounds! hail! bravo!

124. **The interjection** is the sign of some strong feeling, but it is not an element of the sentence.

[The pupils should distinguish clearly at this point between an interjection and an exclamatory sentence. There are many exclamatory sentences, like Hark! Look! Behold! and the like, which are often called interjections. If they express thoughts as well as feelings they are exclamatory sentences.]

WORDS SOMETIMES CALLED PARTS OF SPEECH.

125. You have discovered that the mind is furnished with five kinds of ideas. Name each kind. How many classes of words are there to express these five classes of ideas?

What are these classes of words called?

How many parts of speech have you discovered so far?

There are other classes of words that are sometimes called parts of speech because of their peculiar uses in

expressing thought. But they do not denote new kinds of ideas.

126. The Participle. Ideas of action can be expressed by adjectives and attributive verbs; as,

1. The *roaring* lion,—adjective.
2. The lion *roars*,—attributive verb.

In the sentence, *I heard the lion roaring*, the word *roaring* denotes an attribute of the lion, and it also implies an assertion which it does not express.

Because of this double meaning, *roaring* is called a **participle**. (Justify the name from the dictionary.)

In the sentence, *The farmer caught the boy stealing apples*, the participle *stealing* is like an attributive verb in another respect. It denotes the action as limited by the *object apples*.

These resemblances to the adjective and to the attributive verb may justify calling such words *participles*, but you will note that there is no new class of ideas discovered. The participle expresses an adjective-idea in part, and in part a verb-idea.

It is like the attributive verb in that it sometimes denotes a completed action, and sometimes the action is incomplete; as, *The bird flitting from tree to tree* (incomplete action); *The traitor shunned by all* (completed action).

Since no new kind of idea is expressed by it, but only a combination of other ideas, it is not properly a separate *part of speech*. The name *participle* is given to this combination of meanings.

127. We may describe the **participle** as a word that performs some of the offices of both an adjective and an attributive verb.

In the sentence, *The working man is the citizen deserving honor*, the adjective-idea predominates in the word *working*, but *deserving* has one use of an attributive verb. Its mean-

ing or application is limited to the object *honor* while expressing an attribute of citizen.

In the sentence, *Beware of the man working for bad ends*, the attributive-verb idea is more prominent in the participle *working*.

128. Point out the participles in the following and tell what ideas are expressed by each :

A man wearing a black hat passed by.

I saw a boy beating his donkey.

The master caught his servant stealing hay.

The children coming home from school

Look in at the open door.

He hears his daughter's voice

Singing in the village choir.

Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing,

Onward through life he goes.

There's a merry brown thrush sitting up in a tree.

Each morning sees some task begun.

Up rose Barbara Frietchie then,

Bowed with her four score years and ten.

The wretch concentered all in self,

Living should forfeit fair renown.

The face was white as the driven snow.

Little Jack Horner sat in a corner

Eating a Christmas pie.

129. The Article. *A* or *an* was originally a numeral adjective meaning one. It still retains that meaning, but has another use besides. In the sentence, *Man is mortal*, the word *mortal* expresses an attribute of the human race. In the sentence, *Man is a mortal*, the word *mortal* names a class of objects of which *man* is one.

So in *John is man*, the word *man* denotes the attribute

human as distinct from other beings. But in *John is a man*, the meaning is changed to that of a class noun.

130. This power of changing a word from an adjective meaning to a noun meaning is peculiar to the word *a* or *an*, and it is often called a separate part of speech for this reason. But it is essentially a limiting adjective denoting *one*. It is called the **indefinite article** by many grammarians.

131. The word *the* points out a particular individual or a particular group of individuals; as in the sentence, *The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea*. It is called the **definite article**. But the idea expressed is an adjective-idea.

Define the indefinite article.

Define the definite article.

There is little need of considering the articles as separate parts of speech. They are merely adjectives.

132. The Infinitive. The sentence, *To steal is base*, shows that the act of stealing is the subject of thought, and that the quality *base* is predicated of it. The subject of this sentence is *to steal*, and is called an *infinitive*. It has the meaning and use of an abstract noun. It expresses an action which is viewed as a thought-subject. Every thought-subject must be expressed by either a noun or a word or group of words used as a noun. The infinitive may be called a *noun-phrase*, since it is composed of two words.

A peculiarity of the infinitive is, that although it fills the office of a noun in the sentence, its meaning may also be modified like that of an attributive verb. It is another of those sentence elements that can have a double use.

The nature and use of the infinitive will be more fully presented in Part II. It is a form of the verb that is used for several other parts of speech.

The infinitive does not express a kind of ideas that is not expressed by the other classes of words you have studied, and need not be regarded as a new part of speech.

Make a definition of the infinitive.

133. The Gerund. In the sentence, *Keeping wealth is more difficult than acquiring it*, the words *keeping* and *acquiring* have the uses of nouns. In fact, they are merely other forms of the infinitive. They fill the office of a noun, and also do some of the work of an attributive verb in expressing the thought.

They are called *gerunds*. The participle has the use of an adjective, and in this it differs from the *gerund*, which has the use of a noun.

The gerund takes the participle-form of the verb instead of the infinitive-form, but it performs the same office as the infinitive. It is often called a *verbal noun*. Justify this name.

The gerund does not denote any new class of ideas, and is not, therefore, a new part of speech. It performs some of the offices of a noun, and some of those of an attributive verb.

134. Point out the infinitives and gerunds in the following and state the use of each as a *noun*; as an *attributive verb*:

To spare thee now is past my power.

I like to hear from you.

He felt the pangs of dying.

Seeking safety in flight was a mistake.

Supplying wants is the end of studying science.

The casting out devils, the raising the dead, the healing the sick, were divine acts.

To do good is to live nobly.

“Sleeping upon their arms” is a military phrase.

To labor and to wait are both necessary to success.

Casting out the nines is a method of proving addition.

To speak the truth at all times, one must live the truth.

The joy of returning compensates for the pain of departing.

TEST QUESTIONS.

135. What is a Part of Speech?

What distinct classes of ideas are found in the mind?

What parts of speech are used to express them?

How does a pronoun differ from a noun? How are they alike?

What is the distinguishing mark of the verb?

How does an attributive verb differ from a pure verb?

In what is an attributive verb like an adjective?

What ideas can have attributes?

How does an adjective differ from an adverb? How are they alike?

So far as you have yet learned, do adverbs modify pure verbs?

(Do pure verbs express attributes of other ideas?)

What are the distinguishing marks of the preposition?

What distinguishes the conjunction from the preposition?

When prepositions connect words, what is true of the relative rank of these words in the sentence?

What is true when conjunctions connect words?

Does an attributive verb express an attribute of quality of the subject?

What classes of adjective-words have we discovered?

How does an interjection differ from an exclamatory sentence? In what are they alike?

What two kinds of ideas may be expressed by the participle?

Why is not the participle a distinct part of speech?

Does the pronoun express a class of ideas different from the noun?

Is it any more a distinct part of speech than the participle or the article? Why?

The indefinite article denotes *one*; what other office has it?

What kind of nouns are infinitives and gerunds?

Show that they may be considered abstract nouns.

In what do infinitives and gerunds differ?

[The infinitive, participle, gerund, and article, sometimes called parts of speech, enable us to express our thoughts more concisely, clearly, and attractively than could be done without them.]

CHAPTER VI.

PHRASES AND CLAUSES.

WHAT PHRASES ARE.

136. In the sentence, *He cried loudly*, what part of speech is *loudly*? What is its use in expressing the thought?

In the sentence, *He cried with a loud voice*, what group of words fills the office of *loudly* in the preceding sentence?

We see from these examples that a group of words may perform the office of a single word, or part of speech, in expressing a judgment.

Point out each group of words used as an adjective or an adverbial modifier in the following:

The door on our right hand is open.

He ran with wonderful rapidity.

What words express the entire subject-idea in *The evening star has lighted her crystal lamp*? What group expresses the entire predicate-idea? What are the modifying groups in the subject? In the predicate?

When I think of *the book on the table* and of *the pencil in my hand*, the group of ideas, *on the table*, forms an attribute of the book, and *in my hand*, an attribute of the pencil. Each of the corresponding group of words forms a single element of the sentence, and does the work of a single part of speech in expressing the thought. In the sentence, "A ship *gliding over the water* is a beautiful object," the words *gliding over the water* do the work of an adjective in expressing the subject of the thought. So, too, *over the water* performs the office of an *adverb* in modifying the meaning of *gliding*.

(Note that none of the modifying groups we have mentioned contains a subject and a predicate.)

In the following judgment, *Learning a language well is difficult*, what is it that is difficult ?

137. A group of words that fills the office of a part of speech, but does not contain a subject and a predicate, is a **phrase**.

(The chief object, at this point, is to have the pupils distinguish readily between a *phrase*, when used as a part of speech, and a *simple word*. The teacher will note that the phrase, *gliding over the water*, in the given sentence, is used as an adjective, and that *gliding* has a phrase-modifier, *over the water*, which has the use of an adverb. The many different groupings of words that can be made to make phrases may cause some confusion in the mind of the pupil until he learns to determine what part of speech each grouping represents.)

EXERCISE.

138. Point out the phrases in the following sentences, and tell for what part of speech each one is used.

Example—"At the bottom of the garden ran a little rivulet." *At the bottom of the garden* is a phrase, used as an adverb, to make the meaning of *ran* more definite; *of the garden* is a phrase used as an adjective, to modify the meaning of *bottom*; *a little rivulet* is a phrase used as a noun, subject of the sentence. Note that it takes all the words, *a little rivulet*, to express the entire subject-idea.

The author of the poem was a mere child.

The hour of departure was at hand.

The town is built on the banks of a stream in the midst of a fine farming region.

Gables projecting over the basement below shaded the doorway.

The boat was hurled violently against the cliff.

The herd ran violently down a steep place into the sea.

June is the month of roses.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day.

Cyrus learned to shoot with a bow, to ride a horse, and to speak the truth.

The minister lives beyond the church.

[Lead the children to use sentences containing phrases, and name the part of speech for which each is used. Encourage them to test each other by giving skeleton quotations to be filled with phrases.]

139. CLASSES OF PHRASES.

- a. Point out in the above sentences all of the *adjective-phrases*.
- b. What is an adjective-phrase? (A phrase that does the work of an adjective in the sentence.)
- c. Point out all of the *noun-phrases* in the above sentences.
- d. What is a noun-phrase? (Pupils make definition.)
- e. Designate all of the *adverbial-phrases* in the above sentences.
- f. Define an adverbial-phrase.

140. Construct definitions that shall contain all that you have learned of the nature of phrases.

WHAT A VERB-PHRASE IS.

141. In the sentence, "The boat may have arrived this morning," *may have arrived* asserts the predicate (the arriving this morning) of the subject. In this sentence, *may have arrived* is used as a verb, therefore, and is called a *verb-phrase*. The assertion and the *predicate-attribute* (arriving) are both expressed by the verb-phrase *may have arrived*. In the sentence, "The storm was raging," the words *was*

raging are a verb-phrase, in which the *assertion* and the *predicate-attribute* are expressed by separate words. The phrase asserts the action as continuous. The two words together do the work of an attributive verb.

EXERCISE.

142. Point out all of the verb-phrases in the following sentences, and state whether the predicate-attribute is combined with the pure verb or not, and also whether continuous action is expressed:

Honesty has been the best policy.

Virtue has always brought its own reward.

America was discovered by Columbus.

Washington will live long in the memory of mankind.

Lincoln was speaking earnestly. (Is there a verb-phrase in this?)*

Grant was great in war and in peace. (Is there one here?)

The winds may blow and the storms may come.

COMPOSITION.

143. Make thoughts about objects in the school-room that call for these four different kinds of phrases, and tell whether they are adjective-phrases, noun-phrases, adverbial-phrases, or verb-phrases.

[These composition exercises are excellent means of discovering whether the pupils have caught the idea that the thought they are expressing determines what words and phrases must go into the sentence.]

WHAT A CLAUSE IS.

144. We have seen that single words used to express ideas in a sentence are called *parts of speech*, and that a group of words *not containing* a subject and predicate, which performs the office of a part of speech, is called a *phrase*.

* To express continuous action the verb-phrase is required.

When a group of words containing a subject and predicate is used as a part of speech, it is called a clause. In the sentence, *That honesty is the best policy is generally admitted*, the clause, *That honesty is the best policy*, is used as a noun, and expresses the subject-idea in the thought.

[Give many exercises in which clauses are used as parts of speech.]

145. A clause is a group of words containing a subject and predicate, which performs the office of a part of speech in a sentence.

By a study of the following sentences, it will be seen that the clause may be used for three different parts of speech, viz.: the noun, the adjective, and the adverb.

EXERCISE.

146. Point out the clauses in the following, and name the part of speech for which each is used:

Examples—"That honesty is the best policy is believed by all who have made a careful study of the matter."

That honesty is the best policy is a clause used in place of a noun, as the subject of the sentence.

Who have made a careful study of the matter is a clause used in place of an adjective, to make the meaning of *all* more definite.

"We shall be happy when school begins." *When school begins* is a clause used in place of an adverb, to express the time of the predicate.

Dikes that the hands of the farmers had raised with labor incessant,

Shut out the turbulent tides.

Then he thought how the long streets were dotted with lamps, and how the peaceful stars were shining overhead.

How shall we go? is the next question.

"The bridge is broken!" shouted the rider.

The spot where the battle occurred is marked by a fine monument.

The report is, that the fleet has been destroyed.

Notify me when you reach your destination.

The scouts reported that the hostile Indians were gathered on the Rio Grande.

When the tide went out the sands were strewn with wreckage.

They pitched their tents where running water was found.

147. A clause used to make the meaning of an object-word more definite is an **adjective clause**.

148. A clause used to make the meaning of an attribute-word more definite is an **adverbial clause**.

149. A clause used to express an object-idea is a **noun clause**.

It should be remembered that attributive verbs are also attribute-words. In the sentence, *Birds fly*, the verb *fly* expresses the assertion and denotes the *attribute of action* of the birds (flying).

In the sentence, *The birds fly with great rapidity*, the phrase, *with great rapidity*, makes the meaning of *fly* more explicit by denoting the quality of the action; (attribute of another attribute). It is an *adverbial-phrase*.

In the sentence, *Birds return when the spring comes*, the clause, *when the spring comes*, shows the limitation of the returning of the birds to the coming of spring. This is an *adverbial clause*.

[Sufficient practice should be given to make it easy for the pupils to distinguish between *parts of speech*, and *phrases* and *clauses* used as parts of speech. A part of speech consists of a single word.

[It is a little difficult for learners to see that a group of words can perform the office of a single part of speech in the sentence. A good deal of practice on *oral sentences* will be found better than to use only written and printed sentences. The modifying words, phrases, and clauses can be made to stand out more clearly when addressed to the ear (with proper emphasis) than when presented to the eye. As soon as the pupils learn to discover a single object-idea or attribute-idea in a group of words, the principal difficulty in dealing with phrases and clauses is overcome.

The author assumes that the teacher will supplement the sentences for practice, given in the text, by many others. These should be simple and commonplace statements in which the sentence-form that the teacher wishes to impress is easily discovered. Many of the exercises given in these pages are selections from literature, and should be studied as such while treated as sentences for grammatical analysis. The learners should be made familiar with the grammatical facts involved in each before these selections from literature are taken up.]

COMPOSITION.

Make thoughts which require the use of clauses to express them, and state the use of each clause in the sentences.

ANALYSIS.

- (1) Name all the parts of speech in the following sentences.
- (2) Point out all the phrases and clauses, and name the part of speech for which each is used.

We may shut our eyes, but we cannot help knowing
That skies are clear and grass is growing;
The breeze comes whispering in our ear
That dandelions are blossoming near,
That maize has sprouted, that streams are flowing,
That the river is bluer than the sky,
That the robin is plastering his house near by.

My golden spurs now bring to me,
And bring to me my richest mail,
For to-morrow I go over land and sea
In search of the Holy Grail.

Slowly Sir Launfal's eyes grew dim;
Slumber fell like a cloud on him,
And into his soul the vision flew.

The drawbridge dropped with a surly clang.
Down swept the chill wind from the mountain peak.
From the snow five thousand summers old.

Swift little troops of silent sparks,
Now pausing, now scattering away as in fear,
Go threading the soot-forest's tangled darks
Like herds of startled deer.

From the red stone of the quarry
With his hand he broke a fragment,
Moulded it into a pipe-head,
Shaped and fashioned it with figures.

And they stood there on the meadow
With their weapons and their war-gear,
Painted like the leaves of autumn,
Painted like the sky of morning,
Wildly glaring at each other.

On the gray sea-sands
King Olaf stands,
Northward and seaward
He points his hands.

I hear in the chamber above me
The patter of little feet,
The sound of a door that is opened,
And voices soft and sweet.

I have you fast in my fortress,
And will not let you depart,
But put you down into the dungeon
In the round-tower of my heart.

A Wind came up out of the sea,
And said, "O Mists, make room for me."

CHAPTER VII.

FORMS OF SENTENCES.

150. You found in the early part of your study (see page 46) that there are four kinds of sentences, because there are four distinct kinds of thoughts or judgments.

Name the four kinds of sentences studied and define each.

You will now learn that sentences may differ in their form as well as in their use.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

151. You have seen that some sentences do not use clauses as parts of speech, and that they express only a single thought. These are called *simple sentences*. There may be an indefinite number of parts of speech and of phrases in a simple sentence, but there can be in it but *one* proposition or statement, which must not contain a clause.

The *simple sentence* expresses a single judgment; as,

The sun is in the heavens.

The moon is in the heavens.

The stars are in the heavens.

Here are three judgments and three simple sentences to express them.

Since the same predicate belongs to each subject in these sentences, the subjects may all be combined thus, "The sun, moon, and stars are in the heavens." This is called a simple sentence having a compound subject. When the sentence is

analyzed, it is found that it is an abridged form of a compound sentence.

Make thoughts about objects at your homes having compound subjects.

Make two or three judgments having the same subject but different predicates.

Make of these a thought that requires a sentence with a compound predicate to express it. Such sentences are simple in part and compound in part, but they are classed with the simple sentences, since only different subject-ideas or different predicate-ideas are united, and not different thoughts.

Sentences having both a compound subject and a compound predicate are also classed with simple sentences, as, *The sun and moon rise in the east and set in the west.* Express this thought by four simple sentences. Note that the words *sun and moon* denote the subject of a single thought and *rise and set* its predicate.

THE VARIETIES OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

152. 1. The sentence having a single subject and a single predicate.

2. The sentence having a compound subject and a single predicate.

3. The sentence having a compound predicate and a single subject.

4. The sentence having a compound subject and a compound predicate.

Use each of these varieties in expressing thoughts of objects.

153. Classify the following simple sentences: 1. As to varieties; 2. As to their nature — declarative, interrogative, etc.:

On some fond breast the parting soul relies.

Edward sings and plays.

The brother and sister will visit you.
 He went up and came down.
 Will you go or stay?
 The lion and the lamb shall lie down together.
 The man and the woman came in together and went out separately.
 Little Bo-Peep fell fast asleep.
 Each morning sees some task begun,
 Each evening sees it close;
 Something attempted, something done,
 Has earned a night's repose.
 Do truth and candor charm you?
 Will he not keep an account of this?
 Press on to the front!
 Make way for liberty!

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

154. A sentence in which a clause is used as a part of speech is called **complex**; as, "The stone *which the builders rejected* has become the head-stone of the corner." Here the clause is used as an adjective.

Make other thoughts requiring complex sentences to express them.

155. A **complex sentence** expresses a thought by using one or more clauses as parts of speech; that is, it expresses a thought which has one or more *represented thoughts* among its elements. Why it is called a represented thought will be discovered later.

[There seems to be little reason for calling such a sentence *complex*. Phrase modifiers often complicate the sentence more than clause modifiers. There is certainly no more complexity in the thought when clauses are employed. In the sentence, *We are on the verge, it cannot be questioned, of a long and terrible conflict*, there is a foreign element introduced (*it cannot be questioned*), to correspond

to the foreign element in the thought. The thought is complex, and the sentence that expresses it is, therefore, complex. But it has become established usage to consider a sentence with a clause modifier as complex, and it does not seem wise to attempt to change this nomenclature.]

A COMPOUND SENTENCE.

156. When two or more independent judgments are connected in the mind so as to make a larger whole of thought, we need a corresponding union of sentences to express this larger judgment. We have learned that it is the office of conjunctions to connect such sentences. In the thought, *I know that the night has come, and I believe that the day will dawn*, there are two independent judgments — one a judgment of what I know, and the other of what I believe. In each of these independent judgments a represented judgment is used as an element in the thought. Each clause is an element in its sentence and is used as a noun. But the entire expression denotes a larger whole of thought than does either sentence alone, or do even the two when viewed as separate and unrelated sentences.

157. When two or more simple or complex sentences are connected by conjunctions, so as to express a larger whole of thought, a *compound sentence* is formed; as, "Life is real, life is earnest, and the grave is not its goal." Three sentences are used to express a compound thought.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

158. The following order for analyzing sentences is suggested:

(1) Kind of sentence. (Declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory.)

(2) Form. (Simple, complex, or compound. If simple, state the variety.)

(3) Entire subject.

(4) Entire predicate. { a. Copula or asserting element.
 b. Predicate-attribute.

(5) If copula and attribute are expressed in one word,
state what kind of attribute it is.

159. Point out the phrases and clauses in the following sentences and tell the part of speech for which each is used:

EXAMPLE: "A coal-cellar may be a most curious place to live in, but a Brownie is a curious creature."

This sentence positively asserts something of a thought-subject—it is *declarative*;

It is the union of two sentences to express a larger thought—it is *compound*;

The entire subject of the first simple sentence is the words, *A coal-cellar*; the entire predicate is, *may be a most curious place to live in*. *May be* expresses the assertion—it is the *copula*. *A most curious place to live in* expresses what is asserted of the subject—it is the *predicate-attribute*. The words, *a Brownie*, denote the subject of the second judgment—they are the *entire subject* of the second simple sentence. The group of words, *is a curious creature*, expresses both the assertion and what is asserted of the subject—it is the *entire predicate*. The assertion is expressed by *is*—the *copula*. That which is asserted of the Brownie is expressed by the words, *a curious creature*, which makes the *predicate-attribute*. The copula and attribute are not united in one word in either sentence. The conjunction *but* connects the two simple sentences.

[Pupils should not be taught any exact form of expressing themselves in analyzing these sentences. The purpose is to have each one think out the relations of the words to the ideas they express, and state them in his own language. A formal analysis, where every child follows the same order, is apt to become very mechanical. Be satisfied if the pupil shows that he understands these relations, and expresses his understanding intelligently. He will learn to do it in good form by practice.]

EXERCISE.

Once a little Brownie lived in a coal-cellar.

(*Lived* has what two uses?)

He is a sober, stay-at-home, household elf.

"This will never do," said he.

Oh, how proud the little girl was!

The frosty mist was beginning to rise, and the sun was a ball of red-hot iron.

All the family were very flourishing, except the little Brownie.

Whene'er a noble deed is wrought,

Whene'er is spoken a noble thought,

Our hearts, in glad surprise,

To higher levels rise.

Three Kings came riding from far away.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,

The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,

The plowman homeward plods his weary way,

And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Our very hopes belied our fears,

Our fears our hopes belied;

We thought her dying when she slept,

And sleeping when she died.

[The teacher should bear in mind the suggestion that the pupils should practice upon sentences that have little literary content before studying those selected from literature. The selection of the former exercises this book leaves principally to the teacher.]

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

[The following exercise is the first of a series of studies in Thought Analysis that will be continued in the chapters following. The leading purpose is to give the pupils practice in interpreting literature, and, incidentally, to cultivate their feeling for a good literary style. The grammatical analysis will not be made prominent.

nent, but it will not be neglected altogether. The pupils ought to commit to memory these selections. They are all good literature.]

160. The sun's a thief, and with his great attraction
Robs the vast sea; the moon's an arrant thief,
And her pale face she snatches from the sun;
The sea's a thief whose liquid surge resolves the moon
into salt tears.

What separate thoughts unite to make the whole of thought?

What does the sun steal from the sea? How?

How does the moon steal her face from the sun?

How does the sea steal from the moon?

How does it resolve the moon into salt tears?

Describe in your own language the picture painted by the poet.

TEST QUESTIONS.

What is a sentence? How many thoughts are expressed by a simple sentence? How many subjects may a simple sentence have? How many predicates? What is a simple sentence? When is a sentence complex? How does a clause differ from a sentence? In what is a clause like a sentence? When is a sentence compound? When is a thought compound? (When two or more independent judgments unite to make a larger thought.) What is a phrase? How does it differ from a clause? In what is it like a clause? (Both used as parts of speech.) Describe the varieties of simple sentences.

CHAPTER VIII.

ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE.

WHAT AN ELEMENT OF THE SENTENCE IS.

161. Since a sentence is made up of parts of speech, it follows that every word that is a part of speech, and every phrase and clause used as a part of speech, is an element of the sentence. Every sentence has as many elements in it as it has words or groups of words used as parts of speech.

ESSENTIAL PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

162. Since every thought must have (1) a subject, and (2) that which is thought of the subject, it follows that every sentence must have a word or words that express the thought-subject, and one or more words that express the thought-predicate. These are called the **essential parts** of a sentence.

The essential parts of a sentence are

- (1) All the words that make the *subject*, and
- (2) All those that make the *predicate*.

163. Point out the essential parts in each of the following sentences:

Stars shine.

The twinkling stars in the sky look down upon the revolving earth.

A little child shall lead them.

The breezes of the morning moved the shadows to and fro.

Who taught the bee with winds and rains to strive?

How fading are the joys we dote upon!

Cast thou thy bread upon the waters.

On Linden, when the sun was low,

All bloodless lay the untrodden snow.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.

164. You have learned that the words, phrases, and clauses, that constitute the elements of the sentence, fill different offices in expressing the thought. As in every thought there must be an object-idea (subject), an asserting-idea (copula), and an idea that is asserted of the subject (predicate-attributive), so every sentence must have a word or words to express the subject, a word or phrase to express the assertion, and one or more words to express the thought-predicate; as, *Sugar is sweet*; *The earth is a sphere*; *The sun is a ball of fire*.

These are called the **principal elements** of the sentence.

On page 54 you learned that two of these elements may be combined in an attributive verb; as, *Dogs bark*. The verb *bark* expresses both the *assertion* and the *predicate-attribute* of action.

EXERCISE.

165. Point out the principal elements in the following sentences:

Birds are singing.

Spring is coming.

The thunder roars.

Exercise strengthens.

In which of these are two elements combined in one word? What two elements are combined?

MODIFYING ELEMENTS.

The **modifying elements** in the sentence make more definite the meaning of the elements they modify; as, "The *giddy* multitude are *seldom* judicious *in their approval*."

166. Words, phrases, and clauses, used to make more definite the meaning of other sentence elements, are **modifying elements**.

EXERCISE.

167. Point out both the *principal* and the *modifying* elements in the following. First divide each sentence into its two essential parts—(1) *entire subject* and (2) *entire predicate*.

The miller ground the corn.

Mary lives in a beautiful house.

The people pay taxes.

The state taxes the people.

Two robin-redbreasts built their nest in a hollow tree.

Night sank upon the dusky beach and on the purple sea.

Dr. Johnson treated Mrs. Siddons with great politeness.

No useless coffin inclosed his breast.

A thing of beauty is a joy forever.

Things are not what they seem.

I believe that James is honest.

That you have wronged me doth appear in this.

[Analyze many similar sentences selected from the reader.]

CONNECTING ELEMENTS.

You have learned that (1) the *preposition*, (2) the *conjunction*, and (3) the *copula*, are used as the connecting or linking elements in the sentence.

The copula unites two ideas by asserting one of the other. It belongs, therefore, to both the principal and connecting elements of a sentence. It has two uses.

168. The **connecting elements** are those that join other elements of the sentence, and express some relation between ideas or judgments.

169. Three classes of elements are found in sentences:

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| 1. Principal elements | $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Subj.} \\ \text{Pred. } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Copula,} \\ \text{Predicate-attribute.} \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$ |
| 2. Modifying elements | $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Adj. modifiers} \\ \text{Adv. modifiers} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Words,} \\ \text{Phrases,} \\ \text{Clauses.} \end{array} \right.$ |
| 3. Connecting elements | $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Preposition,} \\ \text{Conjunction,} \\ \text{Copula.} \end{array} \right.$ |

Define each element.

[It is often best to encourage the pupils to formulate for themselves definitions that shall contain all the ideas that they have yet discovered. There is no training that gives better results in exact thinking than the making of definitions that include all their knowledge of the thing defined.]

THE COMPLETE SUBJECT OF THE SENTENCE.

170. When we say, "*A city set on a hill* cannot be hid," it requires all the italicized words to express fully the subject of thought. If one should say, "A city cannot be hid," leaving out of the subject the modifying part, he would fail to express this thought.

171. The **complete subject** of a sentence is the noun or its equivalent which denotes the principal idea in the subject, together with all of its modifiers.

It follows, therefore, that the *incomplete subject* is the noun or its equivalent which denotes the principal idea in the subject, without its modifying words; as, "The *man* on the house-top came down." In this sentence *man* is the *incomplete subject*.

Define the incomplete subject. }
Define the complete subject. } Pupils make definitions.

172. Point out the *incomplete* and the *complete* subject in each of the following sentences:

Many people thought Arthur the rightful king.

Her beauty made me glad.

Under the walls of Monterey,
At daybreak the bugles began to play.

His tuneful brethren all were dead.

All day the low-hung clouds
Have dropped their garnered fullness down.

[Give many additional exercises if needed.]

173. The Complete Predicate. It will be apparent that the predicate of a sentence may also be either complete or incomplete; *The birds sang sweetly in the morning*. Point out the complete predicate; the incomplete predicate.

174. The complete predicate includes all the words which are used to express all that is thought of the subject; as, "Wolsey's career *ended in disgrace*."

175. The incomplete predicate is the word or words that express the principal idea in the predicate, together with the assertion; as, "We *live* in better times"; (*verb live.*) "The spring *will follow* the winter"; (*will follow* is a verb-phrase.)

176. The *incomplete predicate* may be—

1. An attributive verb; as, “The convention *adopted* the report.” (What is an attributive verb?) Express the copula and attribute in *adopted* in separate words.
2. The copula and an attribute-word; as, “The storm *was raging* with great fury;” (attribute of action.) “The apple *is good* for food”; (attribute of quality.)
3. The copula, and a noun that denotes the same thing as the subject; as, “Cuba *is* an island.”

(Class is predicated of the subject, and the name of the class is given also. To classify an object is to express an attribute of it.)

NOTE.—*Be* is sometimes an attributive verb; as, “God *is*” (exists or is existing.) But it is generally a pure copula; as, “Art *is* long.” This does not mean that art *exists* long; it simply affirms the quality, long, of art.

[Too much pains can hardly be taken in the development of the thought expressed in each definition *before it is embodied in a statement*. Those teachers who once fairly enter upon the movement of the thought in this book will see to it that the pupils approach every new topic from the thought side. This will best show that language is the expression of thought and its most perfect symbol.]

EXERCISE.

177. Point out the complete and the incomplete predicates in the following sentences:

- The crows flew over by twos and threes.
 Rudely carved was the porch, with seats beneath.
 This is the forest primeval.
 The branches of the trees were swaying back and forth in the wind.
 An old sailor was smoking his pipe near the cottage.
 The owl has no company-manners.
 A bright fire sparkled merrily on the hearth.
 The cricket ceased chirping.
 The magic of sunlight brings out the summer dress of the trees.

The boy trudged wearily along.

Your watch and your good intentions need to be regularly wound up.

Evangeline was the pride of the village.

The day is cold and dark and dreary.

The earth is a planet.

Lions are carnivorous animals.

Man wants but little here below.

Honor and shame from no condition rise.

The robin and the wren are flown,

And from the shrubs the jay.

The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

The south wind searches for the flowers

Whose fragrance late he bore.

Many a word at random spoken

May soothe or wound a heart that's broken.

The charities that soothe, or heal, or bless,

Are scattered at the feet of man like flowers.

At last a soft and solemn breathing sound

Rose like a stream of rich distilled perfumes,

And stole upon the air.

FORMS OF MODIFYING ELEMENTS.

178. The *principal elements* of the sentence are those necessary to the existence of any sentence whatever. Every sentence must have a *subject* and a *predicate*. But you have learned that a sentence may have modifying elements, whose office it is to make the meaning of other words more definite.

180. Word Modifiers. You have learned that *adjective-words* modify the meaning of nouns. They are of four classes:

(1.) Adjectives; as, "The *wintry* wind is chill."

- (2.) Possessives; as, "The *winter's* wind is chill."
- (3.) Appositives; as, "The winds of the season, *winter*, are chill."
- (4.) Participles; as, "The winds *blowing* in winter are chill."

Note that in each sentence the word in Italics makes the meaning of some noun more definite. They are all of the class of *adjective-modifiers*.

Possessives and *appositives* are new terms, but the ideas they express are not new. The meaning is practically the same whether we say "The light of the sun" or "The sun's light." The possessive in the last expression performs the office of an adjective, as *of the sun* does in the phrase that precedes it.

So, too, when we speak of "John, the carpenter," the word *carpenter* is used to express the characteristic of John by which he is known from the other Johns in the community. This peculiar adjective-use of the noun is known as the appositive.

Justify the use of these names from the dictionary.

[Give the pupils more practice in forming thoughts that require the use of these classes of adjective-modifiers. Keep up the practice of having the pupils test one another by giving skeleton quotations to be filled out by members of the class.]

181. Phrase and Clause Modifiers. The incomplete subject may be modified by an adjective *phrase*; as, "The winds *of winter* are chill."

The incomplete subject may be modified by an adjective *clause*; as, "Winds *which blow in the winter* are chill."

[See chapter VI.]

EXERCISE.

182. Point out the modifiers of the incomplete subject in each of the following sentences, and state whether they are word-modifiers, phrase-modifiers, or clause-modifiers.

The pear trees in our orchard are in bloom.

Several Spanish ships were destroyed.

The Northern Lights, golden and purple and red, streaming from the horizon to the zenith, lit up the scene with a spectral glare.

The old man who saw the accident could give no help.

The time when the battle was fought is not known.

The place which we are seeking was the home of General Grant.

All hope of rescue was gone.

A fluffy yellow chicken with a plaintive voice was telling a tale of woe to the mother-hen.

John's and Henry's bicycles are on the porch; (possessive modifiers.)

A STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

183. But mostly he watched with eager search
 The belfry tower of the old North Church,
 As it rose above the graves on the hill,
 Lonely, and spectral, and somber, and still.
 And lo! as he looks on the belfry's height,
 A glimmer and then a gleam of light!
 He springs to the saddle, the bridle he turns;
 But lingers and gazes till full on his sight
 A second lamp in the belfry burns.

Who was the watcher?

What was the occasion?

What do the adjectives in the fourth line describe?

What is the difference between a glimmer and a gleam of light?

What picture does this change from a glimmer to a gleam suggest?

What is the meaning of turning his bridle?

Why does he linger?

What is at stake?

Was it day or night?

What does *mostly* suggest to you ?

Describe his watching.

What did he watch ?

Where was it ?

What picture does *graves* suggest ?

What does *lo!* suggest ?

What does the "second lamp" suggest ?

Describe the ride after you have read the poem.

What is the name of the poem ?

Who wrote it ?

MODIFIERS OF THE PREDICATE.

When the predicate is incomplete its meaning is made more definite by the use of modifying words, phrases, and clauses.

184. Objective Modifiers. Actions often concern one or more objects besides the doer. In predicating action of the doer, we often find it necessary to add to the verb one or more words expressing ideas of objects. For instance, if you should say, "The tailor makes," the hearer would naturally say, "Makes what?" If you say, "The tailor makes clothing," you have made definite the meaning of the verb by naming the object produced. The action of making has been limited to clothing.

Such object-ideas are called **direct objective modifiers.**

EXERCISE.

To what objects are the actions of the subjects in the following judgments limited?

Cats catch mice.

Mice fear cats.

Soldiers fight battles.

Job showed patience.

Romulus founded Rome.

Ravens fed Elijah.

[The pupil should be led to make many thoughts involving ideas of actions that need object-ideas to limit them, and should point out the corresponding objective elements in the sentences. The pupils are not familiar with the use of object-ideas in limiting the meaning of verbs. They have learned that one class of adjectives limit the meaning of nouns without expressing either quality or action. They are now to learn that a noun or a pronoun may show that an action is limited to a certain object, and so modify the meaning of the attributive verb. It is a modification by restricting the action to the object named. When we say, *John struck*, the action is not restricted. But in *John struck the ball*, the action is limited to the object, *ball*, and the meaning of *struck* is made more definite than it was before.]

185. Indirect Objective Modifiers. Some actions can be limited to two kinds of objects. If I say, "My father gave a knife to me," the direct object of the giving is the knife; but the action of giving is limited also to me, for he gave it to me, and not to some other person.

Objects that help direct objects to still further limit the action are called **indirect objective modifiers**.

In the sentence, *Frank gave his sister an apple*, what is the direct object of the giving? What the indirect? Note that the preposition is not always used in expressing the indirect object.

EXERCISE.

Point out the *indirect* and the *direct* objective modifiers expressed in the following sentences:

The master taught his pupils French.

My mother sent me a letter.

The boy gave the beggar a penny.

Mary bought herself a pair of shoes.

The man told us the truth.

A friend offered us his carriage.

The florist sold the lady some beautiful flowers.

The servant will bring you some water.

[If the pupils are studying Latin, they should be led to see that the word used as indirect objective modifier in English corresponds to the noun in the dative case in Latin. These examples for practice

should be multiplied indefinitely until the class becomes familiar with the two different classes of ideas which these two classes of modifiers express—the direct and the indirect object.]

OBJECTIVE-COMPLEMENT.

186. There is another class of actions that are limited by a direct object, as, "They elected *Lincoln*," and also by an object which is the *effect of the action* upon the direct object; as, "They elected Lincoln *president*." The word *president* is called the *objective-complement*. The word *Lincoln* is the direct object.

187. The *objective-complement* is not readily distinguished by young beginners from the indirect object. It is well to have a simple example to which the pupil can always return, as a key to the difficulty that confronts him. In the sentence, "They made me a house," it is clear that *house* is the direct object, and *me* the indirect. But if they made me a *citizen*, instead, the meaning is very different. *Me* denotes the direct object of the action, and *citizen* shows what I have become after the act of enfranchising has been performed—an objective-complement. It expresses the object which has resulted from the action of *making* (enfranchising).

The objective-complement may be expressed—

- (1) By a noun; as, He called his dog *Rover*; or
- (2) By an infinitive; as, He made the man (to) *run*; or
- (3) By an adjective; as, He painted the box *green*.

The objective-complement is sometimes called the *factive* object. (See dictionary.) The peculiarity of the objective-complement is, that it may be expressed by other parts of speech than the noun, and that it is the effect or result of the action denoted by the verb.

188. Point out the *objective-complements* in the following, and state to which sub-class each belongs:

The government made him treasurer.

They considered him judicious.

He painted the house white.
They pronounced him at first an imposter.
He declared the wise man happy.
He asked me a question.
We took them all prisoners.
I have fought a good fight.
They deem him a false pretender.

TEST QUESTIONS.

What is an element of the sentence? What elements *must be* expressed in the two essential parts of a sentence? Show that there may be as many distinct classes of elements in a sentence as there are distinct classes of ideas in thinking. What makes the predicate? What are the principal elements of a sentence? What are modifying elements? What classes of connecting elements are there? What distinguishes the complete subject from the incomplete? What may the incomplete predicate be composed of? Distinguish between word-modifiers and clause and phrase modifiers. What different kinds of adjective word-modifiers are there? What different kinds of objective modifiers are there? How do you distinguish an indirect objective modifier from an objective-complement? Show that the objective-complement does not always denote an object-idea. Do direct and indirect objective modifiers always express an object-idea?

189. The objective modifiers are:

1. Direct objective modifier.
2. Indirect objective modifier.
3. Objective-complement.

Make a definition of each.

Recall ten acts that you have performed whose expression will require the use of the objective-complement. Example: I told the boy *to go*.

[Do not permit the learner to confuse object-ideas with object-words. In speaking of the objective modifiers in the thought, we are speaking of *ideas* that modify other ideas. The objective modi-

fiers in the sentence are the *words* that limit the meaning of other words. Many of the sections in this book treat of the relations of ideas in the thought; many others treat of the relations of words in the sentence. By keeping this fact in mind the learner will avoid losing his way.]

Point out the direct objects, indirect objects, and objective-complements in the following sentences:

This act made him many enemies.

This act made him a traitor.

He brushed his clothes clean.

Send Mrs. Blank a dozen roses.

The heavy rains made the rivers overflow.

The frost turns the leaves red.

I have sent him a catalogue.

Give the best man the position.

She sang herself hoarse.

I made him speak.

Whatever day makes man a slave takes half his worth away.

And God called the light Day, and the darkness he called Night.

We found the child tired and sleepy.

NOTE.—*Tired* and *sleepy* express attributes of the child, but they also help to limit the meaning of the word *found*. This is shown more clearly in the sentence, *The long journey made the child tired and sleepy*. Here *tired* and *sleepy* are plainly objective-complements. It would be admissible to regard *tired* and *sleepy*, in the sentence given above, as expressing attributes of condition.

Intemperance made the man insane.

The music made the boy dance. (Infinitive.)

You late did name him consul.

Me didst thou constitute a priest of thine.

COMPOSITION.

190. Make thoughts about things that require sentences containing the direct object, or the indirect object, or the objective-complement, and analyze the sentences.

AN ADVERBIAL MODIFIER.

191. It has been shown that when the predicate is an attribute word its meaning may be made more definite by using an adverb, an adverbial phrase, or an adverbial clause; as, "The sun shines (is shining) *brightly*;" (adverb). "The orator speaks *with ease*;" (quality of the speaking—adverbial phrase). "The birds return *when the spring comes*;" (time of returning—adverbial clause).

EXERCISE.

192. Point out the adverbs, the adverbial phrases, and the adverbial clauses that modify the meaning of the predicate in each of the following sentences:

The wind blows furiously.

The wagon rattled noisily along.

The orator spoke for two hours.

A footpath led through the orchard wide and disappeared in the meadows.

The water rises into the air in the form of vapor when the warm rays of the sun fall upon it.

The president stood where he could see the entire procession.

When the dinner hour approaches the whole menagerie is in an uproar.

You rang the bell too soon.

Dismiss the messenger when you have paid him.

Indoors, by the crackling fire, sat a merry group.

[Most of the exercises in this book are selected from literature. It will often be found best for the teacher to use simpler forms of sentences as a preparation for the study of those given. As has been said before, oral sentences are the best when we wish to fix the attention on the nature or use of the *ideas* in a *thought*. The teacher should make free use of oral sentences before taking up the study of those printed or written. Oral work in grammar is even more valuable than oral problems in arithmetic.]

THE INCOMPLETE PREDICATE MODIFIED BY AN ADJECTIVE.

193. When the predicate is composed of the copula and a predicate noun, the meaning of the noun may be modified by an adjective; as, "Grant and Lee *were* great *generals*." In this sentence, *were generals* is the incomplete predicate, which is completed by the adjective modifier *great*.

[Lead the pupils to make thoughts about objects or events that require the use of different kinds of predicate modifiers. A large amount of drill upon selected sentences may be required to make the learner familiar with the different uses of this class of modifiers.]

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

194. Full many a glorious morning have I seen

 Flatter the mountain-tops with sovereign eye,
 Kissing with golden face the meadows green,
 Gilding pale streams with heavenly alchemy;
 Anon permit the basest clouds to ride
 With ugly rack on his celestial face,
 And from the forlorn world his visage hide,
 Stealing unseen to west with this disgrace.

What does this describe?

What flattens the mountain-tops?

Why *sovereign* eye?

How kissing the meadows?

What does *golden face* suggest?

Describe the picture suggested by the fourth line.

What permits?

What is the picture suggested by the last four lines?

What is *rack*? Whose face?

Why *forlorn*? Why *disgrace*?

Point out principal and modifying elements.

CONNECTING ELEMENTS.

195. The connecting elements in a sentence unite the other elements by expressing the relation between ideas or

between judgments. We have found that these consist of three classes. They are:

1. The Preposition,
2. The Conjunction,
3. The Copula, or pure verb.

196. The Preposition. You have already learned that the preposition shows the relation of an object-idea to some other idea of different rank in the thought; as, *The swallows come in summer*. Here the relation is between the *coming* (action-idea) and the *summer* (object-idea). *Come* is a principal element in the predicate, and *in the summer* is a modifying element.

Sometimes the relation expressed by a preposition is made more definite by a modifying word; as, "The sun sets *exactly* in the west on the 21st of September." Here *exactly* makes the meaning of *in* more definite. It would be proper, also, to say that the meaning of the whole phrase, *in the west*, is made more definite by *exactly*.

Point out the modifiers of the prepositions in the following:

He came directly across the field.

He sailed almost around the world.

John was standing directly below the ball.

The boy lay close beside his dog.

Make other thoughts that require modifiers of the prepositions to express them.

Do these adverbs express degree or quality of the relation expressed by the preposition?

197. The Conjunction. We have learned that the conjunction shows the connection between thoughts and also between ideas of the same rank in the thought. It may connect, also, a modifying clause to the element it modifies; as,

The temperate man eats *that* he may live.

The glutton lives *that* he may eat.

Beware *lest* ye fall.

Judge not *that* ye be not judged.

I came *because* you called me.

I will stay *since* you wish it.

The hireling fleeth *because* he is a hireling.

Freely we serve *because* we freely love.

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS.

198. Since both independent and modifying judgments may be connected into a larger thought, there are two distinct classes of conjunctions to express their connection.

In the entire thought, *The sun sinks in the west and the world falls asleep*, the judgments composing it may be regarded as of equal rank, neither being a modifier of the other. But in the thought, *When the darkness comes on the world falls asleep*, one of the judgments modifies the other by fixing the time of the world's falling asleep. These two different relations in the judgments that make up the whole thought call for two classes of conjunctions:

1. Co-ordinate Conjunctions.
2. Subordinate Conjunctions.

[The pupils should consult the dictionary for the definitions and derivations of these words and of all grammatical terms. It will help them to correct or justify their language, and to clear up their thinking.]

199. Co-ordinate Conjunction. When two thoughts are joined making a larger thought, neither of which modifies the other, the sentences that express them are connected by *co-ordinate conjunctions*; as, "The rain descended *and* the floods came *and* they beat upon that house *and* it fell."

Also in the sentence, "The sun, and the moon, and the stars are heavenly bodies," the words, *sun*, *moon*, and *stars* hold the same rank and are connected by co-ordinate conjunctions.

Expand this simple sentence with a compound subject into a compound sentence.

200. Make a definition of the *co-ordinate conjunction*.

201. Subordinate Conjunction. When a clause is used to modify the meaning of another element of the sentence, the connective is called subordinate; as, "The floods came *when* the rains descended."

202. Make a definition of the *subordinate conjunction*.

COPULA-CONNECTIVE.

You have already learned that the *copula-idea* links the thought-subject to the thought-predicate by asserting the latter of the former. No sentence can be formed without this connecting element.

203. Some form of the verb *be* (is, was, has been, will be, etc.) is the only word in the language that is a *pure verb*. All other verbs express this union between the thought-subject and the thought-predicate and at the same time denote some attribute of the thought-subject.

For example: "The apple *is* falling." Here *is* links the attribute of action *falling* to the subject by asserting it, and the verb performs no other office.

But in the sentence, "The apple *falls*," the verb *falls* expresses the action (attribute) of the apple and also asserts it of the subject so as to express the thought. Therefore, *falls* is called an *attributive-verb* and *is* is called a *pure verb*. The attributive-verb has two uses in the sentence.

204. Can the Copula be Modified? We have seen that we must think the predicate-idea as belonging to the thought-subject in order to form a thought. Sometimes the assertion is less positive. This calls for a change of the meaning of the pure verb, *is*, by a modifying word.

EXAMPLES: "Gold is in the Klondike." Here the author of the thought simply asserts the thought-predicate of the thought-subject as a fact. The copula is unmodified.

"Gold is perhaps in the Klondike." Here the author of the thought is in doubt about the connection of the predicate with the subject of thought. The meaning of *is* is modified by *perhaps*.

"Gold is probably in the Klondike." Here the union is shown to be less doubtful than before, but is still uncertain. The copula is modified by *probably*.

"Gold is certainly in the Klondike." Here no doubt is expressed that the predicate belongs to the subject, but the assertion is intensified by *certainly*.

[It will be shown in the study of the verb that the mood-form of the verb shows a similar modification of the copula, as, "Gold may be, or might be, in the Klondike." The teacher can introduce this idea here if the class is sufficiently advanced to take it without getting confused, but it should be suggested merely. It is good teaching to give children hints of what is to come.

There is some reason for regarding these copula modifiers as modifiers of the entire sentence. This will be more fully discussed later.]

EXERCISE.

205. Point out the connectives in each of the following sentences and their modifiers:

The clock struck four, and the merry children came trooping out of school.

The trees were torn up by the roots.

A footpath led through the orchard wide and disappeared in the meadow.

Just within the circle of Indians stood the chief.

Far beyond the eastern horizon lay the home of his childhood.

We saw the fire leap across the clearing and then slowly die down.

Midnight was once more chiming from all the brazen tongues of the city.

The house was probably full.

I certainly say unto you that the time draweth near.

He was possibly too young for the work.

He who is his own foe will surely be destroyed.

Perhaps I am not the man.

206. The following words are used as copula modifiers: *not, certainly, truly, verily, really, probably, positively, absolutely, easily, in truth, perhaps, possibly, necessarily,* and some others.

COMPOSITION.

207. Form thoughts that require modifiers of the connecting elements in the sentences that express them, and point out the modifiers.

[These modifiers of the connecting elements are classed among adverbs. Modifiers of prepositions are adverbs, because they express modifications of the relations of objects, and relations are attributes. The modifiers of the copula show the peculiar manner or mode of the assertion, and some authors call them "*copula modifiers*"; others, "*modal adverbs*." But since the copula always expresses the relation which the author thinks the thought-subject sustains to the thought-predicate its modifier may be classed as an adverb.]

DOUBLE USE OF WORDS.

208. The Attributive-Verb. It has been seen that attributive verbs have a double use. In the sentence, "The sun shines," the word *shines* denotes the attribute (action) of the sun, and it also links this attribute to the thought-subject in such a way as to form a judgment. *The sun shining* does not express a thought but *the sun shines* does. *Shines* is called an *attributive-verb* because it asserts an attribute. *Shines*, therefore, has a double use.

209. The Relative Pronoun. In the sentence, "The house that stands on the hill is sold," the word *that* is used as both a pronoun and a conjunction. It is called a

relative pronoun, but it might very properly be called a *conjunctive-pronoun*.

210. Conjunctive-Adverb. In the sentence, *Winter will come when the sun sinks toward the south*, *when* is both a conjunction, showing the connection of the clause with the word it modifies (*will come*), and also an adverb, limiting the meaning of *sinks*. It is called a *conjunctive-adverb*.

211. The words *like*, *unlike*, *near*, *opposite*, *worth*, and many others that were originally either adjectives or adverbs, may have the use of a preposition and an adjective, or of a preposition and an adverb; as,—

Come not *near* our fairy queen (adverb and preposition).
Opposite the south end of the bridge is an inscription in an English character.

One blast upon his bugle horn

Were *worth* a thousand men. (Adjective and preposition.)

Silence now is brooding *like* a gentle spirit o'er

The still and pulseless world.

While it is true that these words that were formerly adjectives have here the use of prepositions, they have not wholly lost their attribute meaning. *Near*, *opposite*, *worth*, and *like* can be said to have a double use in the sentences, because they express two ideas in the thoughts—an attribute-idea and a connective-idea.

[Give the pupils sufficient exercise in selecting words having a double use to make them familiar with this class of words. The reading-book is a good source of examples.]

212. Make statements about things in which there are words that have two uses. Name the two parts of speech for which each word is used.

CHAPTER IX.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

213. To analyze a sentence is to point out its different elements and state the use of each in expressing the thought.

214. ORDER OF STUDYING A SENTENCE.

1. Discover whether it is declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory.
2. Is it simple, complex, or compound?
3. Separate the complete subject from the complete predicate.
4. What is the principal element of the subject?
5. Point out each word, phrase, and clause that modifies this element.
6. Analyze the phrases and clauses.
7. What is the principal element of the predicate?
8. What are the modifying elements and their uses?
9. Analyze the phrases and clauses.
10. Name the connecting elements and their uses and modifiers.
11. Point out the words, if any, that are not elements of the sentence.
12. Point out the words that fill two or more offices in expressing the thought.

215. Analyze the following sentences according to the order suggested:

Near the churchyard gate stands a poor-box, fastened to a post by iron bands, and secured by a padlock. On Sunday

the peasants sit on the church steps and con their psalm-books. Others are coming down the road with their beloved pastor who talks to them of holy things from beneath his broad-rimmed hat.

Now the northern lights begin to burn like sunbeams playing in the water of the blue sea. Then a soft crimson glow tinges the heavens. A blush is on the cheek of night. The colors come and go, and change from crimson to gold and from gold to crimson. The snow is stained with rosy light. Twofold from the zenith, east and west, flames a fiery sword, and a broad band passes athwart the heavens like a summer sunset.

Soft purple clouds come sailing over the sky, and through their vapory folds the winking stars shine white as silver. With such pomp as this is Merry Christmas ushered in.

The stove was a household god to the children. In summer they laid a mat of fresh moss around it, and dressed it up with green boughs and the numberless beautiful wild-flowers of the Tyrol country. In winter all their joys centered in it, and scampering home from school over the ice and snow they were happy, knowing that they would soon be cracking nuts or roasting chestnuts in the broad ardent glow of its noble tower which rose eight feet high above them.

Longfellow's *Evangeline*, Whittier's *Songs of Labor*, Irving's *Sketchbook*, Thoreau's *Essay on Wild Apples* are excellent sources from which to select sentences for analysis.

EXAMPLE OF ORAL ANALYSIS.

216. The following is one way of making an oral analysis of a sentence. When this method is followed there should be much practice on shorter sentences before undertaking one so long.

“That orb-ed maiden, with white fire laden,
Whom mortals call the moon,
Glides glimmering o'er my fleece-like floor
By midnight breezes strewn.”

This sentence makes a statement, and is, therefore, declarative. The whole sentence consists of one subject and one predicate, but in the subject we find a subordinate clause. The sentence is, therefore, complex.

The first two lines express the thought-subject and are the sentence-subject.

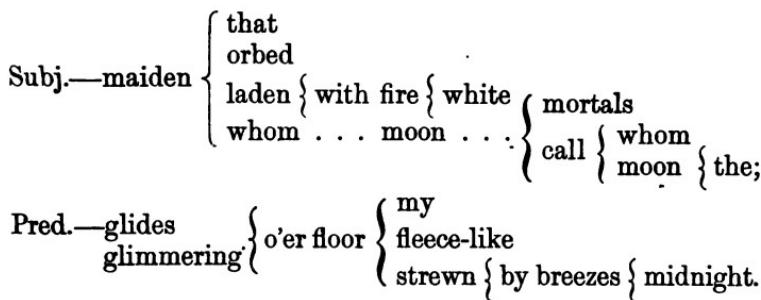
The remaining lines express the thought-predicate and are the sentence-predicate.

The object thought about is the moon, but the writer has imagined her to be a maiden.

The word *maiden* is the principal element of the sentence-subject. Its meaning is made more definite by the adjective-words *that* and *orbed*, the adjective-phrase *laden with white fire*, and the adjective clause *whom mortals call the moon*. The phrase is made up of the principal word *laden* and the descriptive phrase *with white fire*. This latter phrase is made up of the preposition *with* and the noun-phrase *white fire*, in which *fire* is the basis and *white* an adjective modifier. The adjective clause is composed of the subject *mortals* and the predicate *call whom the moon*, in which *call* is an attributive verb. The verb *call* is modified by the direct object *whom*, and the objective complement *the moon*. The word *whom* serves also as a clause-connective. The asserted attribute is double—*gliding* and *glimmering*. The principal element of the predicate is, therefore, the words *glides glimmering*. Here *glimmering* performs the double office of an adjective relating to the subject and an adverb modifying *glides*. The place of the gliding is told by the adverbial phrase, *o'er my fleece-like floor, by the midnight breezes strewn*. It is prepositional in form: *o'er* is the preposition and the principal word in its object is *floor*, whose meaning is made more definite by the adjective words *my* and *fleece-like*, and the adjective phrase *strewn by the midnight breezes*. Of this phrase *strewn* is the principal word, and the adverbial phrase *by the midnight breezes* is its modifier. This latter phrase is prepositional; *by* is the preposition and the noun-phrase *the*

midnight breezes is its object. The noun-phrase is composed of the principal word *breezes*, and the modifiers *the* and *mid-night*, which are adjective-words.

218. EXAMPLE OF GRAPHIC ANALYSIS OF THE ABOVE SENTENCE.



USE OF THE DIAGRAM.

217. The diagram is of but little help in analyzing a sentence. It is often used in such a way as to make it a positive hindrance to the discovery of the different thought elements. Its chief value in the class-room is as a device by which the teacher can set a number of pupils at work at the same time and test their knowledge of the relations of the different parts of the sentence by a rapid glance at their diagrams. The analysis must always be determined before the diagram can be used, for how can one know where to place an element in the diagram until he has determined its use in the sentence? But it is a good device for saving time in the recitation, and, too, the pupils are prompted to make a more careful study of the use of each element when they are required to put it in its proper place in the diagram. No diagram ought to show the unusual and peculiar uses of words. The pupils should be questioned upon these after the diagram has been prepared.

219. SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS.

Labor is the divine law of our existence ; repose is deserton and suicide.

They are never alone who are occupied by noble thoughts.

Faith that asks no questions kills the soul and stifles the intellect.

The night has a thousand eyes and the day but one,
Yet the light of the bright world dies with the dying sun ;
The mind has a thousand eyes and the heart but one,
Yet the light of a whole life dies when love is done.

“ What are you good for, my little man ?

Answer that question for me if you can.”

Over the carpet the dear little feet

Came with a patter to climb on the seat ;

Two merry eyes, full of frolic and glee,

Under their lashes looked up to me ;

Two little hands pressing soft on my face ,

Drew me down close to a loving embrace ;

Two loving lips gave the answer so true ,

“ Good to love you, Mamma—good to love you.”

He that allows himself to be a worm must not complain if he is trodden upon.

All those things for which we plough, build, or sail obey virtue.

Of all sad words of tongue or pen ,

The saddest are these, “ It might have been.”

The evil of silencing the expression of opinion is that it is robbing the human race.

Lives of great men all remind us

We can make our lives sublime ,

And, departing, leave behind us

Foot-prints on the sands of time .

Woodman, spare that tree!
 Touch not a single bough!
In youth it sheltered me,
 And I'll protect it now.

Between the dark and the daylight,
 When the night is beginning to lower,
Comes a pause in the day's occupations
 That is known as the Children's Hour.

Death swims his pale steed through the flood.

To him who in the love of Nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language.

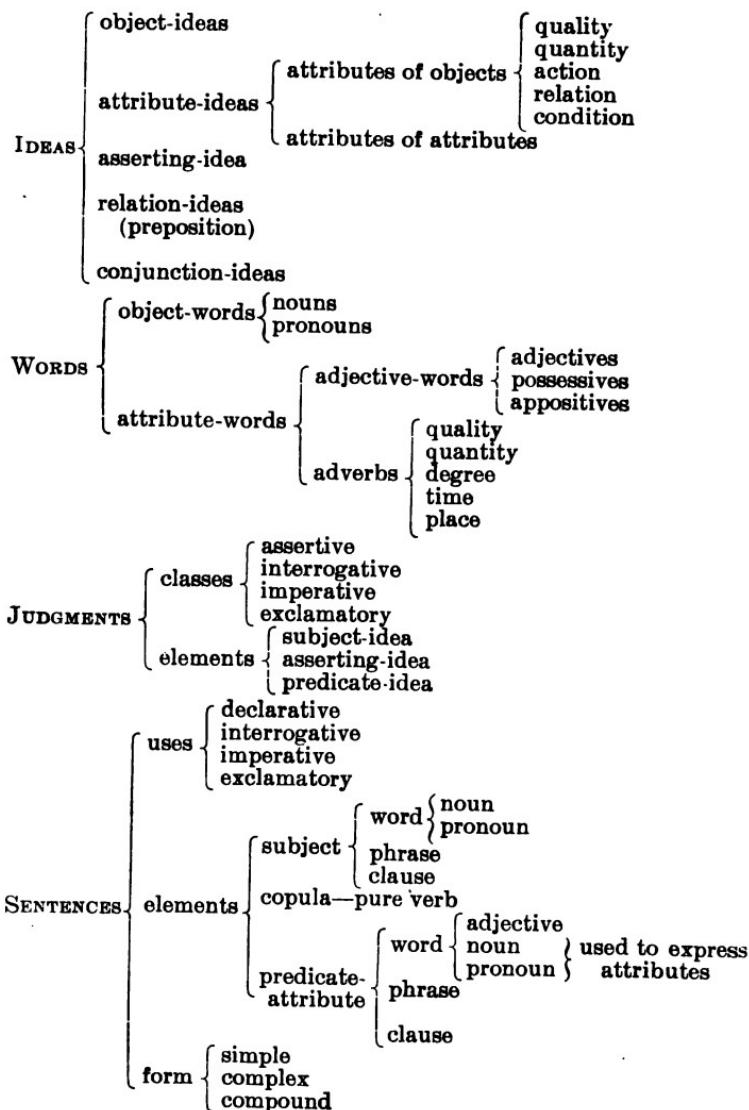
A STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

273. Man conquers the sea and its storms. He climbs the heavens and searches out the mysteries of the stars. He harnesses the lightning. He bids the rocks dissolve and summons the secret atoms to give up their names and laws. He subdues the face of the world and compels the force of the waters and the fires to be his servants.

How does man conquer the sea? In what ways does he conquer the storms? With what instruments does he climb the heavens? What does he discover with each? How does he harness the lightning? With what does he dissolve the rocks and discover the laws of the atoms? How does he compel the force of the waters and the fires to serve him?

How many independent sentences? Analyze the abridged clauses.

GENERAL OUTLINE FOR REVIEW.



PART II.

INFLECTION, CLASSIFICATION, USE, AND
DERIVATION OF WORDS.

THE PURPOSE OF PART II.

1. To show that inflection is another way of modifying the meaning of words;
2. To set forth the classification and properties of the different parts of speech and the grounds for the same;
3. To teach the inflections of the different parts of speech, and the different uses of words, phrases, and clauses in expressing thought;
4. To show the derivation and growth of words.

CHAPTER X.

NOUNS.

220. In Part I we discovered:

1. That our ideas and thoughts are expressed in words and sentences;
2. That there must be as many distinct classes of words and sentences as there are distinct classes of ideas and thoughts;
3. That words, phrases, and clauses are used to modify the meaning of other words;
4. That each word, phrase, and clause performs a distinct office in the sentence in expressing thought;
5. That the different classes of words that correspond to the different classes of ideas constitute the Parts of Speech into which words are divided.

221. You will now enter upon a more thorough study of these Parts of Speech. You will learn:

1. Into what classes each part of speech can be separated;
2. What inflections, or changes of form, words can have to show changes in their meaning and use;
3. From what sources our present words have come and through what changes they have grown into their present form and meaning.

222. Part II will treat of:

1. The **classes** of each part of speech;
2. The **inflection** of words;
3. The **derivation** of words.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

223. Proper and Class Nouns. When we say, *Washington was a great general*, we use nouns of different classes. The word, *Washington*, calls attention to those qualities or attributes that distinguished this particular man from others. The word, *general*, calls attention to those attributes that Washington had in common with other commanders.

The word, *Washington*, separates this one man from all others. It is the particular name by which this person is known.

The word, *general*, puts him into a class with other generals. It is the name common to a class of army officers. *Washington* is a **proper noun** and *general* is a **class noun**.

224. A **proper noun** is a particular name given to an object to distinguish it from all others of the class to which it belongs; as, Lincoln, John, London, France, Jupiter.

225. A **class noun** is a name that will apply to each individual of a class of objects; as, man, soldier, girl.

226. [It will be well to give many illustrations of the difference between *class* and *proper* nouns. The learners must see that whether a word is a proper or a class noun depends upon its use in expressing the thought. If it is the name of each one of a group of different objects, it denotes some attribute common to all; as, *rose*, *apple*, etc. A proper noun is merely an arbitrary sign of its object. Lincoln may be the name of a man, a city, a river, or of any other object. It is a sign, when a proper noun, that has no meaning in itself. But we might speak of the *Lincolns*, or *Websters*, or *Napoleons* of the world. Then these words would denote the distinguishing attributes of Mr. Lincoln, or Mr. Webster, or Napoleon Bonaparte, and would attribute these same qualities to the group of persons of whom we were speaking. This would make them class nouns, though we would begin each with a capital letter. Very much will be gained by making a thorough study of the difference between class and proper nouns at this point. It will tend to prevent confusion in the study of the classes of nouns which follow.]

EXERCISE.

227. Point out the *class* nouns and the *proper* nouns in the following and give reasons:

John Gilpin was a citizen.

If you have tears prepare to shed them now.
 You all do know this mantle. I remember
 The first time ever Cæsar put it on;
 'Twas on a summer's evening in his tent,
 That day he overcame the Nervii.

O ye hard hearts, ye cruel men of Rome!

Dr. Johnson pretended to despise actors and actresses, but he treated Mrs. Siddons with great politeness.

Over Barbara Frietchie's grave
 Flag of freedom and union wave!

There are many Barbara Frietchies among the women of America.

Webster was the Cicero of his generation.

228. Abstract Noun. We may make the quality or other attribute of a thing the subject about which some statement is made. (See page 50.)

In the sentence, *The roses in the garden are fragrant*, the word, *fragrant*, expresses the attribute that is thought of the roses. But in the sentence, *The fragrance of the roses is delightful*, the attribute of the roses is made the subject of thought, and is expressed by the noun, *fragrance*, instead of by the adjective, *fragrant*.

When an attribute of an object is *thought apart* from the object and is, itself, considered an object about which something can be predicated, it then becomes an *object-idea*.

229. When an attribute-idea is made an object-idea the word that names it is an **abstract noun**.

Why called abstract? (See dictionary.)

[The attribute that is abstracted from the object and made an object-idea may have other attributes predicated of it; as, *The fragrance is delightful*. Here *delightful* is a quality of the fragrance. An action or any other attribute can be thus abstracted; as, *He came immediately* may be changed to, *His coming was immediate*. In the latter sentence, that word which in the former sentence expresses an attribute of action is changed in form and becomes an abstract noun, and what was an adverb becomes a predicate adjective. Do not permit the pupils to lose sight of the fact that the actions of an object are its attributes not less than are its qualities, and that the words expressing these are of the nature of adjectives, whatever other uses they may have in the sentence.]

EXERCISE.

230. Make *abstract nouns* from the adjective-words in the following:

Jane is a *clever* girl. (Cleverness belongs to Jane.)

Jack is a *dull* boy.

The *green* corn is waving in the *gentle* breeze.

The *hot* sun will *ripen* the *sour* fruit.

I gave thee *delightful* clothing, *soft* and *bright*. (Gift, delight, softness, brightness.)

Make attribute-words from the abstract nouns in the following:

The room is twenty feet in *length* (twenty feet long).

Mary attends school with *regularity*.

The *guilt* of the prisoner was not established.

The driver behaved with *cruelty*.

The *beauty* of the scene gave much *pleasure*.

The quality of *mercy* is not strained.

Darkness was over all.

Charity covers a multitude of sins.*

231. Concrete Noun. The words *flower*, *George*, *school*, *horse*, name objects having several attributes. The flower

* This exercise should be extended and the pupils should have frequent practice in changing the forms of attribute-words to express object-ideas or attributes of objects.

may be *fragrant*; George may be *honest*; the school may be *interesting*; the horse may be *fleet*. These qualities are all thought as attributes belonging to their objects. When we think of these attributes by themselves and apart from their objects, we name them *fragrance*, *honesty*, *interest*, *fleetness*.

The first group of names, which name objects with their attributes, are generally called **concrete nouns** to distinguish them from the abstract nouns in the second group.

Make a definition of the concrete noun.

232. Collective Noun. Sometimes the noun is the name of a collection or group of objects considered together; as, *flock*, *army*, *school*, *assembly*. These are names for different *groups* of objects. Such names are called **collective nouns**. (Pupils make a definition.)

[Lead the pupils to see the group-idea in the collective noun as different from that which is expressed by a plural noun. A plural noun, as *boys*, suggests a number of distinct individuals, but *flock* or *school* makes us think of the collection as a unit, or whole, composed of individuals.]

233. Point out the collective and the concrete nouns in the following; also the nouns in the plural:

Seeing the multitude he went up into a mountain.

The regiment suffered severely.

The Jewish nation was made up of twelve tribes.

The police dispersed the mob.

The jury were divided in opinion.

The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea.

The crew were of different minds.

234. When we study such words as *fragrance* and *army*, we discover that fragrance is common to a number of different odors; there is the rose-fragrance, and the violet-fragrance, and others. So, there are many different collections of men, each of which is called an army. We see, therefore, that both abstract and collective nouns may be used also as class nouns.

(**NOTE.** All nouns that are not proper are usually put into a class called *common nouns*. Perhaps the best definition of a common noun would be that it is one that is not a proper noun. In no other sense does the word *common* express any distinct class of nouns. It seems preferable to omit this name from our classification altogether.)

EXERCISE.

235. Use the following abstract and collective nouns as class nouns in expressing your thoughts about objects:

Choice, invention, belief, advice, pleasure, judgment, friendship, song, multitude, nation, crowd, crew, fleet, clan.

(**NOTE.** It will be seen that the abstract nouns formed from attribute-words expressing action are more frequently used as class nouns than are those formed from attribute-words expressing quality.)

236. What distinct classes of nouns have you discovered?

(Proper, class, abstract, concrete, collective.)

Describe in your own language the ideas expressed by each of these five classes.

[There are many substances, such as *iron*, *gold*, *water*, and the like, whose names are often classed as *common nouns*. They are not generally *class nouns*. Sometimes we speak of different irons, and coffees, and atmospheres, but as commonly used we mean only a single substance, as, *the atmosphere*. These may be called *Material Nouns*, or *Substance Nouns*. They are all concrete nouns. If it is found that the pupils become confused by attempting so many classifications, it will be better to omit all but the first five classes mentioned above. This caution will apply to many other classifications in grammar. Classification is valuable only when the distinguishing mark of each class is clearly seen.]

EXERCISE.

237. Point out the different classes of nouns in the following sentences and distinguish the abstract nouns of quality from those of action:

Florida contains many swamps.

Texas is the largest state in the Union.

Gladstone was a great man.

The lightning frightened the cattle and the whole herd ran away.

The army of Napoleon was defeated at Waterloo.

The breeze was laden with the fragrance of clover and sweet briar.

Lincoln's speech at Gettysburg contained noble sentiments.

The jury was discharged.

Animals are sensible of the treatment they receive from us.

The continual wearing of the rain had made a deep hollow in the rock.

Close attention and perseverance can conquer even natural defects.

How happy is he born or taught
That serveth not another's will;
Whose armor is his honest thought,
And simple truth his utmost skill.

When Freedom from her mountain height
Unfurled her standard to the air,
She tore the azure robe of night,
And set the stars of glory there.

Words fitly spoken are like apples of gold in pictures of silver.

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

- 238.** The wretch concentrated all in self
Living should forfeit fair renown,
And doubly dying should go down
To the vile dust from whence he sprung,
Unwept, unhonored, and unsung.

When is a person concentrated all in self?

In what sense is he wretched?

Why should he forfeit fair renown?

What is it to forfeit?

How is his death a double dying?

Why is the dust from whence he sprung "vile"?

What is the meaning of going down *unsung*?

What words together express the entire subject of the thought?

What words express the entire predicate of thought?

To what class of modifiers do *living* and *dying* belong?

What is the entire compound predicate?

Is the sentence simple, compound, or complex? Why?

What part of speech is *whence*? What two uses?

INFLECTION.

239. What Inflection is. You have already learned that the meaning of a word may be made more definite by the use of modifying words, phrases, or clauses.

The word *boy* means but one, but when changed to *boys* it means more than one. *Father* is the name of a parent, but *father's* adds the meaning of *possession*. So *his* is a change of the word *he* to indicate possession. *Am* and *was* are different forms of the verb *be*, but *was* changes the meaning of *am* so as to denote *past* instead of *present* time.

Thus it appears that a change in meaning may be shown by a change in the word itself.

240. The change in the form of words to show a change in meaning is called **inflection**. Justify this name from its derivation.

EXERCISE.

241. Point out the inflected words in the following sentences, and give the original or uninflected form of each. What changes of meaning are caused by the inflections?

Lincoln's parents were poor and their home was a very simple one.

We go to school.

He goes to school.

America, our hearts are full of love for thee.

France is much larger than Holland.

Belgium's capital had gathered there her beauty and her chivalry.

Men at some time are masters of their fate.

None was happier than he.

[This exercise may be continued by the teacher to any extent necessary to make it clear that inflection is another way of modifying the meaning of a word.]

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS.

242. Number. The word, *horse*, means but one; the word, *horses*, means more than one. We say that a word which means but one is singular, and that a word meaning more than one is plural. (Derivation of *plural*.)

How is this change of meaning shown?

What parts of speech have number?

[Lead the children to see that any word that expresses the idea of *one* or of *more than one* has the property of number. There are many words that do not suggest this idea, and therefore have no number; as, wisdom, air, chemistry. The pupils should make a list of such words.]

243. Number is the property by which a word shows whether it denotes *one* or *more than one*; as, fly, flies.

There are two numbers—the **singular** and the **plural**.

Define the singular number.

Define the plural number.

Select from your reading lesson such nouns as do not suggest the idea of one or more than one. Such words do not have the property of number.

244. Some nouns are used only in the plural; as, tidings, clothes, thanks, riches, embers. Make a list of these.

Johs yelby

RULES FOR FORMING PLURALS.

[The principal rules are here given for convenience of reference. In teaching these, it is suggested that the children discover each for themselves by forming the plural of several words under each rule before formulating the rule.]

- 245.** 1. Add either *s* or *es* to the singular—*boy, boys; fox, foxes.*
2. When a noun ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* to *i* and add *es*—*fly, flies.*
3. A few nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change *f* or *fe* to *v* and add *es*—*knife, knives.* (Make a list of these words.)
4. Some nouns form their plural by an internal change; as, *goose, geese; man, men.*
5. Nouns of other languages form their plural by the rules of those languages—*phenomenon, phenomena; alumnus, alumni.*
6. Letters, figures, and signs form their plural by adding the apostrophe and *s*—*2, 2's; x, x's; a, a's.*
7. Some nouns are singular or plural according to their meaning in the sentence, but their form remains unchanged; as, *deer, sheep.*
8. Some nouns ending in *o* add *s*; others add *es.* These and other irregular plurals must be learned from the dictionary and from reading.

EXERCISE.

- 246.** Form the plural of the following:

Hare, valley, knife, ox, man, omnibus, key, daisy, money, pony, buoy, gallery, galley, wife, fife, proof, scarf, dwarf, cliff, calico, hero, potato, solo, domino, negro, canto, oratorio.

Form the singular of: Teeth, geese, mice, children, feet.

Make a list of words used only in the plural. (Add to this list from time to time as new words are discovered.)

Make a list of words that have the same form in both singular and plural.

Form the plural of the following:

Nebula, radius, stimulus, stratum, focus, terminus, vertex, vortex, axis, genus, analysis, thesis, crisis, ellipsis, beau, seraph, cherub.

Form the plural of:

Son-in-law, apple-of-Sodom, maid-servant, house-of-correction. Make a rule for forming the plural of compound words.

[Notice that the word expressing the principal idea is pluralized.]

247. What Gender is. All living things are either male or female. All inanimate objects are neither male nor female. The property of words that expresses this distinction in regard to sex is called *gender*.

[Sex or no-sex is an attribute of the *objects*, and *gender* is a power or property of *words*.]

In the sentence, *The Count and the Countess of Traymore are wintering at Nice*, what is the difference in meaning of the words Count and Countess? What shows this difference?

Sometimes different words are used to show the difference of sex; as, *boy*, *girl*.

248. Nouns or pronouns that denote males are in the masculine gender; those that denote females are in the feminine gender.

Sometimes the only way to discover the gender of a noun is by its use in the sentence, as is shown in the following: *Your friend left his hat. Our friend left her gloves.* Here *friend* is masculine gender in one sentence and feminine in the other, as shown by the pronouns.

When neither the thought nor the form shows which sex is meant, the gender of the noun is indefinite. Such nouns are generally said to be in the common gender. In the sentence, *Every child should obey his parents*, the word *parents* names both father and mother, and the gender might with some propriety be called common. The word *child* denotes

either a girl or a boy. This sentence implies that a boy is meant, but we know that either a boy or a girl is really meant. It is the law of our language to speak of a person as of the male sex when the sex is not known. In such a case the masculine pronoun is used instead of the feminine in referring to that person.

The names of objects that have no sex are in neither the masculine nor the feminine gender. The gender of such nouns is called **neuter**.

What does the word *neuter* mean? (See dictionary.)

We see, therefore, that all objects can be separated into two classes, (1) those that have sex, and (2) those that have no sex; those that have sex are either male or female.

Nouns have three genders, *masculine*, *feminine*, and *neuter*.

249. Gender is that property of the noun or pronoun which distinguishes objects in regard to sex.

Let the pupils make a definition of each gender.

250. Personification. Objects without life are sometimes regarded as if they were persons; as, *The sun withdrew his light*. The sun is here spoken of as though it were a conscious being. The object, *sun*, is said to be *personified*, and the noun or pronoun expressing it is in the masculine gender.

[It is important that the pupils distinguish between gender and sex, and also that they distinguish objects that have sex from those that have not. This makes only three distinctions in regard to sex possible, and therefore only three genders of nouns are needed. When the object named by the noun is known to have sex, but the context does not indicate which sex is meant, then a proper statement for the pupil to make in parsing the word is that it has no gender. Sometimes an object is known to have sex, but that attribute is wholly disregarded; as in speaking of a *child*, a *babe*, a *fish*, etc. We use the pronoun *it* to denote such objects, but the neuter pronoun does not imply that the object in such case has no sex.]

EXERCISE.

251. Select the nouns in the following sentences and tell the number and gender of each, and point out the personified words.

The dinner is not served, and the bride sits between the bridegroom and the priest.

Ferdinand and Isabella were King and Queen of Castile and Arragon.

In one cage were a large tiger and tigress with two little cubs.

Gaunt Famine stalked through the land.

The landlord and landlady came hurrying to the scene of the disturbance.

Once there were only men-physicians; now there are many women-physicians.

As Sir Launfal made morn through the darksome gate,

He was 'ware of a leper, crouched by the same,
Who begged with his hand and moaned as he sate;

And a loathing over Sir Launfal came.

The sunshine went out of his soul with a thrill,

The flesh 'neath his armor 'gan shrink and crawl,
And midway its leap his heart stood still

Like a frozen waterfall;

For this man, so foul and bent of stature,
Rasped harshly against his dainty nature,
And seemed the one blot on the summer morn;
So he tossed him a piece of gold in scorn.

From my study I see in the lamplight,

Descending the broad hall stair,

Grave Alice, and laughing Allegra,

And Edith with golden hair.

Three caskets they bore on their saddle-bows,
 Three caskets of gold with golden keys ; .
 Their robes were of crimson silk with rows
 Of bells and pomegranates and furbelows,
 Their turbans like blossoming almond trees.

Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne
 In rayless majesty now stretches forth
 Her leaden scepter o'er a slumbering world.

Vice is a monster of so dreadful mien,
 As to be hated needs but to be seen ;
 Yet, seen too oft, familiar with her face,
 We first endure, then pity, then embrace.

See, Winter comes to rule the varied year.

Open wide the mind's cage-door,
 She'll dart forth and cloudward soar.

Let not Ambition mock their useful toil,
 Their homely joys and destiny obscure,
 Nor Grandeur hear with a disdainful smile
 The short and simple annals of the poor.

GENDER-FORMS.

252. In What Ways Gender Can Be Shown. By studying the different nouns in the preceding exercises it will be seen that gender is shown in three ways:

1. By different words ; as, *king*, *queen* ;
2. By different final syllables ; as, *baron*, *baroness* ; *tiger*, *tigress* ;
3. By compounding a word whose gender is known with one whose gender is unknown ; as, *man-servant*, *maid-servant*.
 Select five examples of each.

What word would be used to denote the other sex of each of the following : Bachelor, earl, nun, hart, niece, stag, witch, lady, hero, count, Jew, duke, caterer, empress, bride, fox, czar, sultan, signor, don.

PERSON.

253. What Person is. Whenever one talks to another there is supposed to be—

- (1) Some one who speaks;
- (2) Some one to whom he speaks; and
- (3) Some person or thing about which he speaks:

The speaker, the hearer, and the object spoken of.

254. The word which represents the speaker is in the **first person**; as, “*We* are studying grammar,” “*I* like good poetry.”

255. The word which denotes the hearer is in the **second person**; as, “*John*, please shut the door,” “*You* are studying grammar.”

256. The word which denotes that about which the speaker is talking is in the **third person**. *Door, poetry, and grammar*, in the sentences above, are in the third person.

257. Point out the words in the *third person* in these sentences you are now reading. Are there any words in the *second person* in them? Whom do you think of as the *person speaking?*

258. Person is that property of nouns and pronouns by which the speaker, the hearer, and the person or thing spoken of are distinguished.

Person of nouns is not shown by inflection. It can be discovered only by the thought. Illustrate by sentences; as, “*I, John, am an apostle of the truth.*” “*John, did you solve the problem?*” “*John was kind,*” etc.

[It is only in the personal pronouns that we use different words to denote the different persons. In all other cases we can determine the person of the noun or pronoun only by studying the thought expressed in the sentence. Only object-ideas can have this relation of speaker, hearer, and thing spoken of. This distinction of person is as applicable to written discourse as to oral.]

EXERCISE.

259. Name the person of each of the nouns and pronouns in the following:

I like my new book.

Your brother lent me his knife.

Jack is waiting in the playground; he wants you to go to him quickly.

Mary says that her sister is ill.

She caught cold Friday.

The doctor saw her this morning.

If sinners entice thee, consent thou not.

"This will never do for me," thought Daffydowndilly.

"I beg your pardon," said the child, politely.

We, the people of the United States, do ordain and establish this constitution.

The king said in kind accents: "Poor little child; he is very young. Let him go. Let him speak to me. My child, how came you here, hidden in the stove? Be not afraid; tell me the truth. I am the king."

COMPOSITION.

260. Lead the children to test one another by expressing thoughts and then asking for the person of each noun or pronoun that is used.

CASE.

261. 1. In the sentence, *Washington was President*, what is the use of the word, *Washington*, in expressing the thought?

2. What is its use in *The President's name was Washington?*

3. What in *The people elected Washington?*

4. What in *A friend sent a Christmas turkey to Washington?*

5. What in *The President, Washington, was from Virginia?*

6. What in *Mount Vernon was Washington's home?*

7. What in *They named the boy Washington?*

In the first sentence the word, *Washington*, is the *subject*. In the second, it is the *predicate-attribute*.

In the third, it denotes the limitation of the act of electing to the person, *Washington* (direct object).

In the fourth, *Washington* denotes the object of the relation expressed by the preposition *to*. It also denotes a limitation of the act of sending, but more indirectly than does the word *turkey* (indirect object of the verb).

In the fifth, *Washington* explains who is meant by the *President* (apposition).

In the sixth, *Washington's* modifies the meaning of the word, *home*, by limiting the application of it to *Washington* (possessive modifier).

In the seventh, the word, *Washington*, denotes that the act of naming the boy is limited to the name, *Washington*, (objective-complement). In this case the action of naming makes its own object.

You discover from these sentences that the word *Washington* bears seven different relations to other words in the seven sentences, but only in the sixth sentence is the form of the word changed to show the relation. In each of the other sentences the relation is determined by the thought expressed.

262. That form or use of a noun or pronoun by which its relation to other words is shown is called *case*.

263. We have discovered in section 261 seven different relations of nouns and pronouns to other words, each of which might be called a different *case relation*, but English

grammarians name only *three cases*; these are the **nominative**, the **possessive**, and the **objective**.

All these seven relations are included under these three cases. The objective case includes three of them, for instance.

264. The Nominative Case. The nominative use of a noun or pronoun is—

1. That of subject; as, “*Men* may come and *men* may go, but *I* go on forever.”
2. That of predicate-attribute; as, “I am the *victim*, but the culprit is *he*.” This is called the predicate nominative, and always denotes the same person or thing as the subject.

265. A noun or pronoun is in the nominative case—

1. When it is the subject of a sentence;
2. When it is a predicate-attribute denoting the same person or thing as the subject.

EXERCISE.

Point out the nouns and pronouns in the nominative case in the following. State whether they are *subject nominatives* or *predicate nominatives*.

The groves were God's first temples.

Dewdrops are the gems of morning.

Labor is life.

Charlotte was an artist.

He may be an orator.

Health is preferable to riches.

History is an interesting study.

Passion is the drunkenness of the mind.

The spirit of true religion is kind and cheerful.

God's attribute is love.

Gravity is the ballast of the soul.

The memory is the treasure-house of the mind.

The rich and the poor are alike mortal.

The snow had begun in the gloaming,
And busily all the night
Had been heaping field and highway
With a silence deep and white.
Every pine and fir and hemlock
Wore ermine too deep for an earl,
And the poorest twig on the elm-tree
Was ridged inch-deep with pearl.

[Extend this exercise as the class may need.]

266. The Objective Case. In the sentence, *The people honored the president*, the noun *president* limits the action of honoring to a particular officer as the object honored. The noun *president* is in the objective case.

In the sentence, *The people gave honor to the president*, the two objects are required to limit fully the meaning of *gave*. The direct object is *honor*. But to say *The people gave honor* would express an incomplete thought. The action must be further limited to a particular object, *president*. This is called the *indirect object* of *gave*, and the *immediate object* of the preposition *to*.

The *indirect object* of a verb is in the objective case.

In the *thought*, *The flowers come in the spring*, the idea, *in*, shows the relation of the *spring* to the *coming* of the flowers. The relation is limited to the object *spring*. In the *sentence* the object of the preposition is in the objective case.

In the *thought*, *Elizabeth made Raleigh a knight*, the action of Elizabeth is limited to the object Raleigh. But the action of the queen was further limited to bestowing *knight-hood* upon Raleigh. She might have made him a lord or a duke. The title, *knight*, is the result of the act of the queen upon Raleigh. In the *sentence* the word *knight* *complements* or fills out the meaning of the verb. The noun, *knight*, is an *objective-complement* and is in the *objective case*. Another name for it is *predicate object*.

Nouns and pronouns are in the *objective case*:

1. When they are *direct objects* of attributive verbs;
2. When they are *indirect objects* of attributive verbs;
3. When they are *objects of prepositions*;
4. When they are *objective-complements* of attributive verbs.

267. A noun or pronoun used as a direct or indirect object of a verb, or as an objective-complement, or as the object of a preposition, is in the **objective case**.

EXERCISE.

268. Point out the objective modifiers in the following and classify each:

- The lightning struck the oak.
Titus destroyed Jerusalem.
Give bread to the poor man.
Lend me your knife.
A lion lay among the bushes at the riverside.
Place the chair beside the table.
Coffee comes from Arabia.
The people elected him governor.
They called his name John.
The Romans made Cicero consul.
Many people thought Arthur the rightful heir.

THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

269. In the sentence, *The people granted the president's wish*, the noun, *president's*, is used to make the meaning of the word, *wish*, more definite by denoting whose wish was granted. It denotes possession or source. It is in the **possessive case**.

270. Point out the nouns and pronouns in the possessive case in the following:

- He watched the eagle's flight.
Peter's wife's mother lay sick of the fever.

Hay is the ox's food.
Samson tied foxes' tails together.
I like my new book.
Brother lent his knife to me.
Keep thy father's commandments.

[Notice that the form of the noun is changed for the possessive case. What changes are made in the pronouns in the above sentences?]

271. A noun or pronoun used to make more definite the meaning of another noun by denoting possession or source is in the **possessive case**.

[These three case relations of nouns and pronouns to other words should be shown by numerous sentences given by the teacher or composed by the pupils. The case relation is the most difficult one for learners to understand. It is more easily mastered in conversation about the use of nouns and pronouns in sentences that are formed by the pupils in expressing their thoughts about things.]

272. The Nominative case is the use of a noun or pronoun as the subject of a sentence, or as predicate-attribute.

273. The Possessive case is the form or use of a noun or pronoun to denote possession, ownership, or source of the object modified.

274. The Objective case is the use of a noun or pronoun as the object of an attributive-verb or preposition.

275. The case of a noun or pronoun is sometimes shown by the inflection of the word, as in personal pronouns and in the possessive case of nouns, but it is generally determined by the *use* of the word in expressing the thought.

EXERCISE.

276. Point out the nouns and pronouns in the following whose case is shown by inflection:

The doctor saw her this morning.

The brothers thought that James's prize was better than their own.

I admire the porch of Mr. Smith's house.

A pronoun whose case is shown by inflection is in this sentence.

Point out the words in the following sentences whose case must be determined by the thought:

From the neighboring school come the boys.

When the rock was hid by the surges' swell
The mariners heard the warning bell.

Down came the storm and smote amain
The vessel in its strength.

In this place ran Cassius' dagger through.

And the good south wind still blew behind,
But no sweet bird did follow,
Nor any day, for food or play,
Came to the mariner's hollo.

The present scene, the future lot,
His toils, his wants, were all forgot.

The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold,
And his cohorts are gleaming with purple and gold,
And the sheen of their spears was like stars on the sea,
Where the blue wave rolls nightly on deep Galilee.

277. State number, gender, person, and case of each noun and pronoun in the following sentences:

Berlin is the capital of the German Empire.

France is a republic.

Tell us a story.
 Our soldiers are brave.
 England's colonies are very numerous.
 The king told the boy's story to the astonished courtiers.
 " You have made a great mistake," said the king to his counselor.
 France exports wine and manufactured articles.
 Somewhat apart from the village, and nearer the Basin of Minas,
 Benedict Bellefontaine, the wealthiest farmer of Grand-Pre,
 Dwelt on his goodly farm; and with him, directing his household,
 Gentle Evangeline lived, his child, and the pride of the village.

Give me a staff of honor for mine age,
 But not a scepter to control the world.

Give us this day our daily bread.
 Teach me all the gladness that thy brain must know.
 Homer, the greatest poet of antiquity, is said to have been blind.

Hours are golden links, God's token
 Reaching heaven.

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

- 278.** Britannia needs no bulwarks,
 No towers along the steep:
 Her march is o'er the mountain waves,
 Her home is on the deep.
 With thunders from her native oak
 She quells the floods below,
 As they roar on the shore
 When the stormy winds do blow.

What is *Britannia*?
 What are bulwarks?

Show that the third and fourth lines give a reason for the statements in the first two.

In what sense is her home on the deep?

What is the meaning of the last four lines?

What is the native oak from which she thunders?

What is meant by the stormy winds?

What word is personified?

What is the entire predicate attribute in the third and fourth lines?

What does *below* modify?

Point out all the nouns and pronouns in the objective case and state the use of each in expressing the thought.

OTHER RELATIONS. (SOMETIMES CALLED CASES.)

279. In the sentence, *Peter, the hermit, preached the first crusade*, the word, *hermit*, is in apposition with *Peter*. *Hermit* is used to explain which Peter is meant. It has an *adjective* use, therefore.

An **appositive** has the same case as the noun it modifies. Why called *appositive*? (See dictionary.)

Make a sentence in which both the noun and its appositive modifier are in the objective case.

280. In the sentence, *Brutus, thou art noble*, the word *Brutus* is used to denote the person addressed. It is called **independent by direct address**. Sometimes the objective case form is used instead of the nominative; as, *Oh, miserable me!* But there is no objective relation. The noun *boy*, in *The boy, O where was he*, is also independent.

281. *The musicians arriving, the concert began.* Here the word, *musicians*, is in the same case that it would be if the phrase, *the musicians arriving*, were expanded into the clause, *when the musicians arrived*.

It is called **nominative with a participle**. The nominative form is always used when the object is expressed by a pronoun. The noun does not change its form to denote case except in the possessive.

282. These peculiar relations are called:

1. Appositive.
2. Independent.
3. Nominative with a participle.

RULES FOR FORMING SOME POSSESSIVES.

283. Add the apostrophe (') and the letter *s* to all singular nouns; as, *pencil's*, *book's*, *Charles's*. If this rule in any case produces a disagreeable harshness of sound, the additional *s* should be omitted in *pronunciation*, but not generally in writing.

2. Add the apostrophe only to plural nouns ending in *s*; as *boys'*, *books'*. Other plurals take the apostrophe and *s*; as, *men*, *men's*.

3. When the noun is the same in both numbers add apostrophe and *s* if singular, and *s* and apostrophe if plural; as, *sheep's* (sing.), *sheeps'* (plu.).

4. All compound nouns and groups of nouns used to name one object, form the possessive by adding the apostrophe and *s* to the last word; as, *King of England's palace*. *The poet Longfellow's home*. *His son-in-law's house*.

284. [These rules, like those for plurals, are inserted for reference. It is best to depend upon practice in using the apostrophe, rather than upon memorizing rules. Let the pupils discover the rules. The above are rules for *writing* words; not for *pronouncing* them.]

EXERCISE.

285. Analyze the following sentences and state the person, number, gender, and case of each noun:

One generation passeth away and another generation cometh.

The groves were God's first temples.

Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger,
Comes dancing from the East.

A sorrow's crown of sorrow
Is remembering happier days.

We should count time by heart-throbs.
 He who destroys a good book kills reason itself.
 Earth with her thousand voices praises God.
 There is no terror, Cassius, in your threats.
 Flow gently, sweet Afton, among thy green braes.
 Tears! idle tears! I know not what they mean.

DECLENSION.

286. We have seen that the person, gender, number, and case may be known by the *use* of the noun and pronoun in the sentence, and that sometimes the *form* of the word is changed to denote one or another of these properties.

287. To decline a noun or pronoun is to give the *form* of the word in each of its cases and numbers:

	NOUN.			PRONOUN.	
	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>		<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	horse	horses		I	we
<i>Poss.</i>	horse's	horses'		my	our
<i>Obj.</i>	horse	horses		me	us.

NOTE.—This meaning of the word declension is not apparent from its derivation. The word means *falling away*. The Latin grammarians considered the nominative as the *vertical* case and all the others as successively falling away from the vertical toward a horizontal position, and they were called oblique cases. Make a diagram showing this conception.

THE DIFFERENT USES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

288. You have learned that the different case relations that nouns and pronouns may have to other words in the sentence are as follows:

1. As subject of the sentence or clause.
2. As predicate nominative.

3. As direct object limiting an action.
4. As indirect object, limiting an action.
5. As objective-complement (factive object). (See dictionary for meaning of *factive*.)
6. As appositive modifier.
7. As possessive modifier.
8. Without grammatical relation to other words; as, *The boy! oh, where was he?* (Boy in this sentence has no case relation, though it means the same person as *he*.) *John, come here* (direct address).

[These different uses are summarized here for convenience of reference. Those with which the pupils are not familiar should be illustrated by numerous examples.]

PARSING.

289. When we analyze a sentence we name all its elements and state their uses.

To parse a word is to state the part of speech to which it belongs and also its class, grammatical properties, and relation to other words.

Parsing is a more extended analysis.

ORDER OF PARSING A NOUN.

290. 1. Name part of speech.
2. Give its class.
3. State person, number, and gender.
4. Name the case and state relation to other words.

[We ought to avoid insisting upon any *exact form* in which the pupils shall express their ideas, lest the children think more of the *form* than of the *thought* they wish to utter. But some form needs to be suggested, and the one that tends to keep the pupil thinking in the right lines is the best.

One of two forms is adopted by most teachers.

In one of these the fact is first stated and the reason follows; as, *John is a noun because it is the name of an object-idea.*

In the other the ground for the fact is first stated and the fact follows; as, *John is the name of an object-idea; it is a noun.*

The latter is the better, for obvious reasons. But as soon as the habit of thinking before speaking is established in the pupil, the facts or conclusions only should be stated, and in as few words as possible. As soon as practicable the pupils should parse in a very informal manner, somewhat as follows:

These roses are withered. *Roses* names objects, more than one, belonging to a class of objects without sex, and of which something is affirmed. This fixes the mind on the relation of the ideas in the thought. It is a minute thought analysis.

The following limits the attention more to the *word* and its relations and properties:

Roses is a class noun, neuter gender, nominative case, and is the principal element in the subject of the sentence.]

EXERCISES.

291. Analyze the following sentences and parse the nouns:

Silently, one by one, in the infinite meadows of heaven,
Blossomed the lovely stars, the forget-me-nots of the angels.

Great elms, fragrant lilacs, and syringas stand by the path which leads to the door; and when the poet was living the passer-by would often catch a glimpse of him as he paced up and down the shaded veranda.

He had called to see the owner of the house, Mrs. Andrew Craigie, widow of the apothecary-general of the Continental Army in the Revolution.

"I am Professor Longfellow," he said.

At length she led him into the southeast corner-room of the second story.

"This was General Washington's chamber," she said.

Here he gladly set up his home.

Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul!

They called the new land Florida.

The carriage having been repaired, we set out again for Albany.

Oh, a dainty plant is the ivy green
That creepeth o'er ruins old!
Of right choice food are his meals, I ween,
In his cell so lone and cold.

Great souls by instinct to each other turn,
Demand alliance, and in friendship burn.

From my winds are shaken the dews that waken
The sweet birds, every one,
When rocked to rest on their mother's breast
As she dances about the sun.

Under a spreading chestnut tree
The village smithy stands.
The smith, a mighty man is he,
With large and sinewy hands;
And the muscles of his brawny arms
Are strong as iron bands.

A STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

292. So live that when thy summons comes to join
The innumerable caravan which moves
To that mysterious realm where each shall take
His chamber in the silent halls of death,
Thou go not like the quarry slave at night
Scourged to his dungeon, but sustained and soothed
By an unfaltering trust, approach thy grave
Like one who wraps the drapery of his couch
About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams.

Name the author. What do you know about him? Describe the picture suggested by the first four lines. What is the caravan here meant? What is meant by *chamber in the silent halls of death*? Is a quarry slave more miserable than others? Why? What two kinds of life are contrasted?

Why does one go to his grave scourged, and the other with an unfaltering trust?

Point out all the words that have double uses. What is the grammatical connection expressed by *that* in first line? What relation is shown by *like* in fifth line? What does *at night* modify? What does *scourged* modify? What does *sustained* modify? What is the relation expressed by *like* in the eighth line?

SYNOPSIS FOR REVIEW OF NOUN.

293. CLASSES.

Concrete	Proper
	Class
	Collective
	(Material or Substance Nouns.)

Abstract.

PROPERTIES.

- | | |
|---------------|-----------------|
| 1. Gender— | 3. Person— |
| a. Masculine. | a. First. |
| b. Feminine. | b. Second. |
| c. Neuter. | c. Third. |
| 2. Number— | 4. Case— |
| a. Singular. | a. Nominative. |
| b. Plural. | b. Possessive. |
| | c. Objective. |
| | d. Independent. |

USES IN THE SENTENCE.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Subject. | 7. Possessive modifier. |
| 2. Direct object of verb. | 8. Independent. |
| 3. Indirect object of verb. | 9. Object of a preposition. |
| 4. Objective-complement. | 10. Nominative with a participle. |
| 5. Predicate nominative. | |
| 6. Appositive. | |

[The pupil should make sentences illustrating these different classes, properties, and uses of nouns and pronouns, and state the grammatical relations of the words.]

TEST QUESTIONS.

- How does a noun differ from a pronoun?
A proper noun from a concrete noun?
When does a proper noun become a class noun?
What is an abstract noun?
How does the concrete noun differ from the abstract?
If the collective noun is the subject, will the verb be singular or plural in form?
Give an example requiring a plural verb; one requiring a singular verb.
To what does gender belong?
To what does sex belong?
What distinctions are made in objects in respect to sex?
What is it to personify an object?
In what ways is the gender of nouns shown?
How many persons can nouns have?
How many different case relations may nouns have?
How many cases do nouns have in English?
What is an objective-complement?
What is the appositive relation of nouns? Illustrate.
Write the possessive form of *The English House of Parliament*.
What is it to parse a word?
What is it to analyze a sentence?
Write the possessive plural of *deer*.
Justify the use of *was* and *were* in the following sentences:
The audience was large.
The audience were divided in sentiment.
Parse *dumb* in the sentence, *The shock struck the orator dumb*.
Use an abstract noun as a class noun in a sentence.
Use a proper noun as a class noun in a sentence.

CHAPTER XI.

PRONOUNS.

294. It has been shown that object-ideas are expressed by nouns or pronouns. When we wish to give a name to an object we use a noun. When we wish to denote an object without naming it the *pronoun* is used. Any *word* that denotes an object without naming it is of the nature of a pronoun. It may perform other offices that justify classing it with some other part of speech.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

295. Personal Pronouns. The pronouns *I*, *you*, and *he* are of different persons. The person of each is shown by its form. *I* is always of the first person, denoting the speaker; *you* of the second person, denoting the person spoken to; and *he* is of the third person, denoting the person spoken of. These are called **personal pronouns**.

[The meaning of *person* in grammar should be clearly set forth by oral sentences. It is that property of a noun or pronoun that shows the relation of the object-idea in the thought to the speaker who utters it. In the personal pronoun the person is shown by the form as well as by the sense. But in all other nouns and pronouns it is the meaning that determines the person of the word.]

296. Some pronouns are used in asking questions; as, *who?* *which?* and *what?*

These are **interrogative pronouns**.

They are *pronouns* because they denote objects, and are not names. They are *interrogative* pronouns because they ask questions.

297. In the sentence, *The man whom I saw is blind*, the pronoun *whom* has a double use; it connects the clause to the noun it modifies and expresses, also, an *object-idea*.

- It is called a **relative pronoun**. What name would better describe its use?

298. Some pronouns point out definitely what thing is meant; as, *In this, 'tis God directs; in that, 'tis man*.

This and *that* are called **demonstrative pronouns**.

299. In the sentence, *Some are dishonest, others are not*, the words, *some* and *others*, denote who are meant in a very vague and indefinite way.

They are called **indefinite pronouns**.

300. The classes of pronouns described above are:

1. Personal pronouns; as, *I, you, he*.
2. Interrogative pronouns; as, *who? which? what?*
3. Relative pronouns; as, *who, which, that*.
4. Demonstrative pronouns; as, *this, that, these, those*.
5. Indefinite pronouns; as, *some, other, any, many, each, and many others*.

301. Make a definition of each class of pronouns that shall accord with the description given.

EXAMPLE.—A personal pronoun is an object-word that shows by its form whether it is of the first, second, or third person.

EXERCISE.

302. To what class does each pronoun in the following sentences belong?

Who is that? Whom did you see? He heard the man who spoke. That that that you used should have been which. (There are but two pronouns in this sentence. Point them out.)

Gather up the fragments that remain.

He that hath ears to hear let him hear.

Which is the first commandment?

Who shall decide when doctors disagree?

Each spoke to each.

Many have prophesied in my name.

None can say, "Here nature ends and art begins."

Of such is the kingdom of heaven.

You must wake and call me early,

Call me early, mother dear.

Half way up the stairs it stands

And points and beckons with its hands.

Alas! they all are in their graves; the gentle race of flowers
Are lying in their lonely beds with the fair and good of ours.

PROPERTIES OF PRONOUNS.

303. You have already learned that the pronoun has the same properties as the noun. These are person, gender, number, and case.

304. Inflection. Since pronouns have gender, number, and case, they admit of inflection.

305. Personal Pronouns. Pronouns that show their person by their form are called **personal pronouns**. They are *I, you, he, she, it*.

They are inflected as follows:

		FIRST PERSON.		SECOND PERSON.	
		Sing.	Plu.	Sing.	Plu.
<i>Nom.</i>	I	we		you	you
<i>Poss.</i>	my	our		your	your
<i>Obj.</i>	me	us		you	you

THIRD PERSON.					
<i>Masculine.</i>		<i>Feminine.</i>		<i>Neuter.</i>	
Sing.	Plu.	Sing.	Plu.	Sing.	Plu.
<i>Nom.</i>	he	they	she	they	it
<i>Poss.</i>	his	their	her	their	its
<i>Obj.</i>	him	them	her	them	them

306. The forms *mine*, *ours*, *hers*, *theirs*, *thine* are the old forms of the possessive, but they are now generally used as nominatives or objectives; as, *The book is mine* (predicate-nominative); *I gave mine* (objective) *to him*.

Mine and *thine* are sometimes used as possessive-case forms in poetry; as—

“*Mine eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord.*”

307. The old form of the second person singular is: Nominative *thou*, possessive *thy*, objective *thee*.

This is not often used in ordinary discourse, except by the Society of Friends. It is also used in English to express reverence. It is often used in other languages in addressing persons of inferior rank or position.

308. Compound Personal Pronouns. When we wish to give emphasis to the idea expressed by the noun or pronoun the compound pronoun is used; as, “*I, myself*, will go”; “*She, herself*, will be there”; “*The man, himself*, appeared.”

309. This form is used as subject and also as objective modifier. It is used in only two cases—the *nominative* and the *objective*. The compound form for I or me is *myself*; for she or her it is *herself*; for he or him it is *himself*; for we or us it is *ourselves*; for you it is *yourself* or *yourselves*; and for they or them it is *themselves*. The following are all of the forms of the compound personal pronouns:

NOMINATIVE AND OBJECTIVE CASES.

Singular.

myself
yourself
himself
herself
itself

Plural.

ourselves
yourselves
themselves.

What is the case of each compound personal pronoun in the following?

A house divided against itself cannot stand.

All our knowledge is ourselves to know.

Riches certainly make themselves wings.

The king himself has followed her
When she has walked before.

Physician, heal thyself.

But every freeman was a host,
And felt as if himself were he
On whose sole arm hung liberty.

COMPOSITION.

310. Form thoughts about things that require personal pronouns and compound personal pronouns to express them.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

311. You have learned that the *relative pronoun* fills the office of a noun and also of a conjunction, in the sentence. (See page 141.)

The relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, *what*, and *as*. Use each in a sentence.

312. The Antecedent. The word, phrase, or clause for which a pronoun stands is called its **antecedent**.

[Let the pupils select the antecedents of pronouns in sentences in the reader. Lead them to form thoughts that require the use of relative pronouns to express them, and state the case of each pronoun and its conjunctive use.]

313. The relative *what* is peculiar in that it has three uses in the sentence; as, *Tell me what I shall do*. *What* is here used as *that*, or the *thing* (the antecedent), and also as *which* (the relative); and *which* has the use of both a pronoun and a conjunction. In parsing *what*, all these uses

must be stated. This is an instance where a single word is used for three different parts of speech.

Two Uses of Relatives. In the sentence, *The sun, which shines in the heavens, sheds light upon the world*, the clause, *which shines in the heavens*, is *descriptive* of the sun. But in the sentence, *The sun that is the center of our system is not so large as some other suns*, the clause, *that is the center of our system*, restricts the meaning of *sun* to our own sun, and does not merely describe it by naming one of its attributes. Relatives are, therefore, either **descriptive** or **restrictive**. Which clause is set off from the rest of the sentence by commas? You see here one use of punctuation marks in expressing the thought. **Descriptive clauses** are set off by commas; **restrictive clauses** are not.

314. Point out the relative pronouns in the following, and state all of the uses of each :

Who is the man that said that?

I do not know who said it.

'Tis sweet to hear the merry lark
That bids a blithe good morning.

315. Compound Relative Pronoun. In the sentence, *Whoever will may come*, the compound form of the pronoun denotes both antecedent and relative, as in the relative *what*. It means, "*Any one who will may come*." The meaning is more general than in the use of the simple relative. The simple form, *who*, may be used in the same way; as, *Who has ears to hear may learn*.

316. The compound relatives are *whoever*, *whichever*, and *whatever*.

317. Declension of the Relative Pronoun. The singular and plural forms of all relative pronouns are the same. They differ only in the case forms.

<i>Nom.</i>	who	which	that	what
<i>Poss.</i>	whose	whose	whose	(wanting)
<i>Obj.</i>	whom	which	that	what.

To form the compound relatives add *ever* or *soever* to the cases of *who*, *which*, and *what*.

DIFFERENT USES OF THE PRONOUN.

318. The pronoun may be used:

1. As subject,—*I will go.*
2. As predicate-attribute,—*It is I.*
3. As direct object,—*I saw him.*
4. As indirect object,—*He gave (to) me the book.*
5. As appositive,—*I, myself, did it.*
6. As objective-complement,—*I thought you (to be) him.*
7. As independent,—*And you! What shall I say of you?*
8. As object of a preposition,—*I spoke to him.*

EXERCISE.

319. State all the uses of each pronoun in the following; give the class of each pronoun:

We are Anglo-Saxons.

What will you have?

Give this to him.

This is he.

You, moon, have you done something wrong in heaven,
That God has hidden your face?

The rest made him himself again.

The king himself led them.

Stand you directly in Antonius's way
When he doth run his course.

Which will you take, this or that?

Now mine eye seeth thee.

If thine enemy hunger, feed him.

Gay hope is theirs by fancy fed.

The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars,
But in ourselves, that we are underlings.

The good, the brave, the beautiful,
How dreamless is their sleep!

Each spake to each.

Many have prophesied in my name.

Of such is the kingdom of heaven.

He that hath ears to hear let him hear.

Such as he was let all become.

What thou art we know not.

Who steals my purse steals trash.

ORDER OF PARSING A PRONOUN.

320. 1. Select the antecedent.
2. State person, number, and gender (same as antecedent).
3. State case-relation to other words.

[Fix in the minds of the pupils the fact that the *person*, *number*, and *gender* of the pronoun are the same as those of the antecedent, since it denotes the same object. But make it plain to them that the case must be determined by the office the pronoun fills in the sentence.]

321. Select from the following sentences the pronouns that are used incorrectly and tell why they are incorrect.

Parse all the pronouns. (Personal pronouns of the first and the second person have no antecedent. They denote directly the person speaking, without reference to his name.)

Him and I are going home.

It was them who said it.

Who did you see?
 He is the man whom I saw.
 Every pupil should do their best.
 Whoever sows will reap.
 He who is just the people will respect.

OTHER CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

322. Demonstrative Pronouns. *This is not the man who gave me those apples, which are much better than these.* Notice the use of the demonstrative (pointing out) words, *this, those, and these*. Which denote objects? Which make the meaning of the other nouns more definite? Which are adjectives? When is a word a pronoun? From the answer to the last question we may conclude that *demonstrative words* are **demonstrative pronouns** when they denote objects, and that they are adjectives when they make the meaning of nouns more definite.

The following are some of the demonstrative pronouns: *this, these, that, those, such, former, latter.*

323. Interrogative Pronouns. *What did he say when I told him what book you had?* Make the same kind of study of *what* in this sentence that you made of the demonstrative words in the previous section, and state when *what* is an interrogative pronoun and when it is an adjective. What two uses has the second *what* in the above sentence?

324. Indefinite Pronouns. There is a large number of words, originally adjectives, that are often used to denote objects without naming them, but they do not belong to any of the classes of pronouns heretofore mentioned; as, *one, some, any, each, other, else*, and many others.

These are **indefinite pronouns** when they denote objects, and **adjectives** when they limit the meaning of object-words.

325. Make a definition of—

- (1) Demonstrative pronoun ;
- (2) Interrogative pronoun ;
- (3) Indefinite pronoun.

For example: A demonstrative pronoun is a word that denotes an object without naming it, and, at the same time, points out what object is meant.

[The caution is here repeated that if these many classes of pronouns seem to confuse the pupils, the classification should be limited to personal, relative, and interrogative, and what is here said about the others should be omitted until later. Minute classifications are suitable only to discriminating minds. There are some pupils who will enjoy making them, and it will sharpen their wits to do it. If only three classes are taught, some pronouns will be discovered by the children which they should not attempt to classify.]

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

326. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
As the swift seasons roll!
Leave thy low-vaulted past!
Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
Till thou at length art free,
Leaving thine outgrown shell by life's unresting sea!

Of what poem is this a part? What is the low-vaulted past? Compare the growth of the chambered nautilus with the growth of the soul. What is the meaning of being shut from heaven by a vaster dome? What imagery does the line suggest? When do we leave our outgrown shell? What is the use of *thee* in the first sentence? of *mansions*? of *low* in the third line? Case of *temple*? What does *leaving* modify?

DIFFERENT USES OF THE SAME WORD.

327. You have learned that a single word may perform as many as three offices in a sentence; the relative *what*, for

example, or the compound relatives *whoever*, *whosoever*, etc.
(See page 144.)

It is also true that the same word may be repeated and used as several different parts of speech. In the sentence, *That that that John used should have been which, that* is (1) an adjective, (2) a noun, and (3) a relative pronoun; and *which* is a noun. (Let it always be borne in mind that it is its use in expressing the thought that determines to what part of speech a word belongs.)

328. State the different parts of speech to which the same word belongs in the following:

The above statement is true.

He came from above.

The stars are above the earth.

Above is sometimes a noun.

Oh, who can hold a fire in his hand
By thinking on the frosty Caucasus?

Though man a thinking being is defined,
Few use the grand prerogative of mind.

Thinking is but an idle waste of thought.

He left the world still thinking on his name.

I've been thinking of the days that are no more.

Man is the crowning work of God.

They hastened to man the boats and put to sea.

There were both man-servants and maid-servants in the family.

[Let the pupils find many such examples of different uses of a word.]

COMPOSITION.

329. Use the same word as different parts of speech in expressing your own thoughts; for examples,—iron, stone, guard, silver, morning, by, in, above, base, savage.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES.

330. Analyze the following sentences and parse all nouns and pronouns:

In 1877 Lowell went to Spain.

In 1880 he was transferred to England.

He returned to the United States in 1885, and the rest of his life was passed quietly in his Cambridge home.

What is so rare as a day in June?

The flowers which you have ordered have not come.

Which is the shortest day of the year?

Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them.

The maple swamps glow like a sunset sea.

The little brook heard it, and built a roof,

'Neath which he could house him, winter-proof.

My window looked down into a market-place, and gave me a distant view of the towers of the cathedral.

After that Prometheus taught them, little by little, a thousand things. He showed them how to build houses of wood and stone, how to tame sheep and cattle and make them useful, and how to protect themselves from the storms of winter and the beasts of the woods. Then he showed them how to dig in the earth for copper and iron, and how to melt the ore, and how to hammer it into shape, and fashion from it the tools and weapons which they needed in peace and war.

In the Acadian land, on the shores of the Basin of Minas,
Distant, secluded, still, the little village of Grand-Pre
Lay in the fruitful valley. Vast meadows stretched to the
eastward,
Giving the village its name, and pastures to flocks without
number.

Indoors, warm by the wide-mouthed fireplace, idly the farmer
 Sat in his elbow chair, and watched how the flames and the
 smoke-wreaths
 Struggled together like foes in a burning city.

Think none but noble thoughts.

Lepidus flatters both,
 Of both is flattered; but he neither loves,
 Nor either cares for him.

We'll sing one song for the old Kentucky home,
 For the old Kentucky home far away.

Washington was first in war, first in peace, and first in
 the hearts of his countrymen.

TEST QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

331. State the difference between abstract and collective nouns. How do pronouns resemble nouns? How do they differ from nouns? Explain how the inflection of a noun or pronoun modifies its meaning; give two examples. What is a *property* of a noun or pronoun? Give examples. What is the difference between sex and gender? In what different ways is the gender shown? How are the plurals of letters and figures formed?

What is the difference in form between the plural and the possessive case of son-in-law? What is case?

Form the possessive of *goose, geese; sister, sisters; fox, foxes; woman, women*. Make a rule for spelling possessives. What is the possessive of Moses? Which is right, *somebody's else book* or *somebody else's book*? Why? Name all the different personal pronouns. Which is right, *it's* or *its*? Explain. Which is right, *those books* or *them books*? Why? How does *what* differ from other relatives? How does a relative pronoun differ from others? What properties of a pronoun are always the same as those of the antecedent? In what cases are *mine, yours, thine, ours*, etc., as ordinarily

used in a sentence? Are they ever in the possessive case? What double meaning have they when used in other cases?

What properties of nouns and pronouns are determined by their use? What properties of nouns may be known by inflection? What are the different uses of nouns and pronouns in a sentence?

[These questions should be supplemented by others of a similar character. Do not rely on test questions that appeal to verbal memory alone.]

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

332. Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates and men decay;
Princes and lords may flourish or may fade,
A breath can make them as a breath has made;
But a bold peasantry, their country's pride,
When once destroyed can never be supplied.

How does the accumulation of wealth cause men to decay? In what sense are princes and lords made by a breath? In what sense are a bold peasantry their country's pride? Why cannot the peasantry be supplied as well as the lords and princes?

What part of speech is *ill*? Case relation of *prey*? Substitute a phrase for *where*. Has *as* more than one use? What thought connection is expressed by *but*?

CHAPTER XII.

ADJECTIVES.

333. It has been shown that words which denote the attributes of objects have an adjective use in the sentence.

When we speak of *the blue sky*, the word, *blue*, describes the sky by denoting its quality. In the phrase, *the roaring lion*, the word, *roaring*, describes the lion by denoting action.

In the sentence, *It costs much labor*, the word, *much*, describes the labor by denoting the quantity.

When we speak of *this desk* or *three apples* the adjectives, *this* and *three*, limit or restrict the meaning or application of the nouns, *desk* and *apples*, without expressing quality.

The words *a* (or *an*) and *the* belong to this class of adjectives, *a* (or *an*) denoting *one* object, and *the* a particular one. You have learned that they are sometimes called the *indefinite article* and the *definite article*. They have other powers which all adjectives do not possess, but they always fill the office of an adjective in the sentence. (See page 60.)

334. The adjective expresses some attribute of an object.

It may express the *quality*, *quantity*, or *action* of an object, or *restrict* or *extend* in other ways the meaning of a noun.

NOTE.—It should be kept in mind that the word *attribute* is used in a restricted and technical sense in grammar. It means any quality, quantity, action, condition, or relation that belongs to or characterizes an object or another attribute.

EXERCISE.

335. Point out the adjectives in the following, and tell whether they describe the object, or only limit the meaning of the noun without expressing any characteristic of the object:

This apple is mellow.

Many people are waiting for the latest news from the scene of war.

The fourth house on the right side of the street is the one you seek.

Each man looked at his neighbor.

The buildings are in the Gothic style.

Six days shalt thou labor.

I was lodged in the seventh story.

Bring me the red paper, not the blue.

The whole landscape had a fresh, breezy look.

In this manner we toiled along the dusty highway.

Now the glad midsummer, full of blossoms and the songs of nightingales, is come.

Lonely and lovely, a single star

Lights the air with a dusky glimmer.

THE CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

336. It follows from sections 330 and 331 that adjectives are of two general classes:

1. *Descriptive adjectives*, which express some quality or other characteristic of the object;

2. *Definitive adjectives*, which restrict or extend the meaning of the noun without expressing quality or other attribute of the object; as, *some* men (restricts); *all* men (extends).

[The Definitives can be separated into Numerals, Demonstratives, Distributives, and the like; but this classification is of no practical value beyond that of a training in discriminating differences. The teacher should determine whether the class will be benefited by a more extended classification than has been given, and act accordingly.]

VERBAL ADJECTIVE.

337. An adjective that expresses an attribute of action is sometimes called a *verbal adjective*; as, *the running brook*, *the singing bird*, *the wind whispering* in the trees.

EXERCISE.

Designate the verbal adjectives and those expressing quality in the following:

Soon afterward the lion, finding the battle going against him, sent for the bat to come at once and join his army.

Hearing these words, she flew to the birds.

The birds seemed on the point of gaining [gerund] a great victory.

Rejected by both parties, the bat was forced to lead a solitary life.

338. Why Called Verbal Adjective? This name is given to this kind of adjectives because the attributive verb generally expresses an attribute of action of the subject. The verbal adjective is like this verb in that both the adjective and the verb express attributes of action of an object. It differs from the verb in not affirming the attribute so as to make a sentence. It is the attribute-meaning and not the copula-meaning of the verb that is expressed by the verbal adjective. (See page 54.)

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

You may have three apples, all of which are *sweet*, but the second may be *sweeter* than the first, and the third the *sweetest* of the three.

[Give other illustrations of this change in the form of the adjective to denote different degrees of quality.]

339. A change in the form of an adjective to express a different *degree* of quality or other attribute is **comparison**.

In grammar only three degrees of comparison are recognized. They are the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative* degree.

When do we need the positive? When the comparative? When the superlative?

340. *The positive* degree shows the quality of an object without reference to any other objects having a like quality.

341. *The comparative* degree shows that of two objects having a like quality one possesses it in a higher or lower degree than the other.

342. *The superlative* degree is used when the object possesses the quality in the highest or lowest degree of all included with it.

[The comparative degree indicates that one part is compared with another part of the same whole or group. The superlative degree compares a part with the whole. If the whole about which one is thinking consist of but two parts, it is proper to use the superlative when one part is compared with the whole. We may say the tallest of the two in such a case; as, *The sunniest half of the house*. But when we compare one part with another part and not with the whole, the comparative must be used. This is a distinction in thought that may be beyond the powers of most boys and girls to comprehend. But the teacher ought to bear it in mind and present it to those who can see it. The point is that the comparison of a part with the whole requires the superlative degree. Whether the whole consists of two or of more than two parts does not matter.]

343. How Degrees Are Expressed. 1. Degrees of comparison are expressed by adding to the positive form *er* for

the comparative, and *est* for the superlative; as, *large, larger, largest*.

2. They may also be expressed by using the adverbs *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*, before the positive; as, *cheerful, less cheerful, least cheerful; convenient, more convenient, most convenient*.

3. Often the degree of quality is shown in other ways; as, *quite sick, rather bad, too cold, sweetish, very sour*, and the like.

4. *Most* is sometimes *annexed* to the word whose meaning it modifies; as, *topmost, uttermost*, etc.

5. Double comparatives and double superlatives are now seldom used. They were once quite common; as, *The most unkindest cut of all* (Shakespeare).

344. Make a list of all the adjectives you can discover whose comparison is irregular; such as *good, little, many, up*, etc.

345. Some adjectives do not admit of comparison; for example, *two, straight, universal, dead*. Make a list of such adjectives as you discover them.

We often use incorrectly the phrase *more universal* for *more general*, and *more perfect* for *more nearly perfect*, and the like.

Why do not such adjectives admit of comparison?

Do *definitive adjectives* admit of comparison? Why?

346. The Different Uses of Adjectives:

1. Adjective-modifier; as, *The happy children.*
2. Predicate-adjective; as, *The spring is beautiful.*
3. Objective-complement; as, *The apples made the child sick.*

All attribute-words are parsed as adjective or adverbial modifiers, except when the attribute is joined with the copula to form a verb-phrase; as, *The birds are singing.* *Here are singing* is a verb-phrase. *Singing* expresses an

attribute of the birds, but is not to be parsed as a modifier of *birds*. It forms with *are* a verb-phrase known as the *progressive form* of the verb, which expresses the action as continuous.

What is wrong in the following?

Those kind of men. The man is six foot tall. A ten feet pole. Them books are yours.

[It is good practice to have the pupils make a record of the errors in the use of adjectives which they hear in conversation, and bring them to the class for discussion.]

EXERCISE.

347. Classify and state the use and the degree of comparison of each adjective in the following sentences:

He stood there in his little, rough, sheepskin coat and his thick, mud-covered boots. As he lifted his little, eager, pale face to the young king's, great tears were falling down his cheeks. "What sum did they pay your father? Do you know?" asked the sovereign. "Two hundred florins," said August, with a great sigh of shame. "It was so much money, and he is so poor, and there are so many of us."

Overhead hang the long, fanlike branches, trailing with moss, and heavy with red and blue cones.

Underfoot is a carpet of yellow leaves, and the air is warm and balmy.

Assembled in this apartment, around a large oaken table, were about a dozen of the most distinguished representatives of the Saxon families in the adjacent counties. The downcast and sorrowful looks of these venerable men, their silence and their mournful posture formed a strong contrast to the levity of the revelers on the outside of the castle.

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

348. Man conquers the sea and its storms. He climbs the heavens, and searches out the mysteries of the stars. He harnesses the lightning. He bids the rocks dissolve

and summons the secret atoms to give up their names and laws. He subdues the face of the world and compels the forces of the waters and the fires to be his servants.

How does man conquer the storms?

How does he climb the heavens?

Give an example of harnessing the lightning.

Show that the atoms are secret.

Give an example of water as his servant; of fires.

If you introduce the preposition *of* between *and* and *the fires*, how is the meaning changed?

Point out all of the adjective words and adjective phrases, and the words whose meaning they modify.

TEST QUESTIONS.

349. How do adjectives and adverbs differ in their use in expressing thought? Express a thought that calls for an adjective of quality; of quantity; of action; of condition (the child is *sick*); of relation (*wisdom* is *better* than *rubies*). State the difference between a *definitive* adjective and a *descriptive* adjective. Why are adjectives of action called also *verbal* adjectives? How are adjectives compared? Why cannot the adjective, *perfect*, be compared? Make a sentence in which an adjective is used as an objective-complement. When are predicate adjectives of action considered as part of the verb? Does *sweetish* express a degree of comparison? Does *very sour*? What different parts of speech may an adjective modify? Give an example of each. If one tells you that a certain picture is *bad*, but another one is *better*, and a third is *best* of all, do *better* and *best* express degrees of the quality expressed by *bad*? What would be another way of expressing these degrees?

CHAPTER XIII.

THE VERB.

REVIEW.

350. It was shown in Chapter II. that in every thought there is an asserting idea which connects the subject with the attribute that is affirmed of it.

The **verb** in the sentence is the word which connects the predicate-attribute to the subject so as to express a thought.

CLASSES OF VERBS.

351. The verb not only links the predicate to the subject, but it may express also the attribute that is predicated of the thought-subject; as, *birds sing* (*are singing*). When so used it is called an **attributive verb**. (See page 53.)

352. In the sentence, *Roses are fragrant*, the only office that the verb *are* performs is to assert the predicate-attribute of the subject. *Be* is the only verb in the language that expresses the assertion without an attributive idea. It is called a *pure verb* for this reason. But it must be remembered that the verb *be* may also be an attributive verb. In the sentence, *God is, and he is the rewarder of those who diligently seek him*, the first *is* predicates *existence* of God, and is nearly equivalent to *is existing* (attributive verb). The second *is* merely asserts the predicate of the subject (pure verb).

353. An *attributive verb* expresses both the assertion and the predicate-attribute in one word or in a verb-phrase; as, "Man *must die*" (verb-phrase). "The earth *revolves*" (attributive verb).

354. The *pure verb*, or copula, merely connects the predicate to the subject so as to express a thought. It is a single word or a verb-phrase; as, "Man *is* mortal," "Man *should be* (verb-phrase) moral."

[Take up the study of the verb again at this point, and see that the pupils apprehend the peculiar office of this part of speech. To say that the verb denotes action is only to state its adjective office. The pure verb is a *connective* and not an *attribute-word*. Continue to analyze attributive verbs into the copula element and the attributive element until the class see that the attributive verb expresses both an adjective-idea and the connection of the thought-predicate with the thought-subject. Emphasize the fact that there is but one strictly pure verb or copula. The other copulative verbs, so-called, such as *become*, *seem*, *appear*, etc., express an attribute; and even the verb *be*, as has been shown, sometimes expresses the attribute of existence.]

355. Classify the verbs in the following:

Serenely the sun sank down to his rest and twilight prevailed.

The day is cold, and dark, and dreary.

Foremost rides the spokesman.

Then the kings rode out of the city gate,

With a clatter of hoofs, in proud array;

But they went not back to Herod the Great,

For they knew his malice and feared his hate,

And returned to their homes by another way.

The sky was covered with fleecy clouds.

The gardener covered the vines with straw.

We will go now, children.

The grass was wet with dew.

Madrid is the capital of Spain.

Were the lessons difficult?

Wrong is, and it cannot be ignored.

CLASSES OF ATTRIBUTIVE VERBS.

356. Sometimes the action expressed by the attributive verb requires an object to limit it; as, "John sold his *knife*." Here the action of selling is limited to the object, *knife*.

But in the judgment, "Fire *burns*," the action of burning does not demand an object to limit it. The thought is complete.

These two classes of verbs are called:

1. Transitive,
2. Intransitive.

357. **The transitive verb** expresses an action that needs to be limited by some object to complete the thought; as, *Moses struck the rock*.

358. **The intransitive verb** expresses a full and complete thought without the aid of an objective modifier either expressed or understood; as, *The earth revolves upon its axis*. *The bird sings*. *The child sleeps*.

359. You will find in the dictionary many verbs that are defined both as transitive and as intransitive. Whether a verb is transitive or intransitive depends upon its meaning in the sentence. To which class does each verb in the following belong?

The child speaks slowly.

He spoke words of truth.

He could neither see nor hear.

We could see the light in the village.

We heard the whistle of the on-coming train.

Select from your reading lesson the transitive and the intransitive verbs.

360. Make sentences in which the objects of the transitive verbs shall be (1) words; (2) phrases; (3) clauses.

OTHER VERB-FORMS.

361. There are certain verb-forms that do not express the asserting element of the thought and are not, therefore, properly verbs. (See sections 126, 132, and 133.) They are:

1. The Present Participle;
2. The Past Participle;
3. The Infinitive;
4. The Gerund.

362. **The present participle** denotes continued, or uncompleted action; as, *The wind moaning through the pines. The moon rising over the hills.* It has the use of an adjective.

363. **The past participle** denotes completed action; as, *The house built upon the sand.* It has the use of an adjective.

364. **The infinitive** is a phrase composed of the simplest, or root form, of the verb and the word *to*. It fills the office of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb; as, *To seek is to find* (noun). *The days to come are full of promise* (adjective). *They came to scoff and remained to pray* (adverb).

365. **The gerund** has the form of the present participle but the use of a noun; as, " *Seeing the truth differs from practicing it.*" It is a noun that expresses action in such a way as to admit an object to limit the action.

[The learner should see that it is the attribute-idea expressed by the verb that is denoted by each of these verb-forms. They are either abstract nouns, or adjectives, or adverbs. These forms are introduced here because they are needed in explaining the inflection and conjugation of the verb.]

EXERCISE.

366. Point out the transitive and intransitive verbs and the other verb-forms in the following sentences:

To answer gently will be wise.
 To find fault is easy.
 Houses to rent are advertised in this column.
 This water is not good to drink.
 Making all possible haste, we finished packing the boxes
 and sent them off.
 Shattered and disabled the fleet withdrew.
 The train came rushing on. (Participial phrase.)
 The order to leave was expected at any moment.
 Our hope of seeing the commander was fading.
 The flowers were withering in the heat of the sun.
 He did not dare to cross the river.
 Be careful in writing the problem.

367. Regular and Irregular Verbs. There are three parts of the verb from which all the tenses are derived. They are :

- (1) *The present indicative* (see),
- (2) *the past indicative* (saw),
- (3) *the past participle* (seen).

These are called the **principal parts of the verb**.

The principal parts of *go* are, as shown in the following :

1. I *go* now,
2. I *went* yesterday,
3. I have *gone* already.

Of *look*, they are :

1. *look*,
2. *looked*,
3. *looked*.

The principal parts of a verb can always be determined by filling out the following blanks with the proper verb-forms:

- I _____ now.
 I _____ yesterday.
 I have _____ already.

[Select a list of verbs that are often used incorrectly and let the pupils fill out these blanks with their principal parts.]

***368.** *Regular verbs* form the past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the present; as, 1. *form*, 2. *formed*, 3. *formed*.

369. *Irregular verbs* form the past tense and past participle in some other way; as, 1. *speak*, 2. *spoke*, 3. *spoken*.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

370. NOTE.—Those words in the list which are marked with an *r* have also the regular forms. The italicized forms are less in use.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
abide,	abode,	abode.
am or be,	was,	been.
awake, <i>r.</i>	awoke,	awaked.
bear,	bore, <i>bare</i> ,	borne, or born.
beat,	beat,	beaten, beat.
begin,	began,	begun.
bend, <i>r.</i>	bent,	bent.
bereave, <i>r.</i>	bereft,	bereft.
beseech,	besought,	besought.
bet, <i>r.</i>	bet,	bet.
bid,	bid, bade,	bidden, bid.
bind,	bound,	bound.
bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.
bleed,	bled,	bled.
blow,	blew,	blown.
break,	broke, <i>brake</i> ,	broken, <i>broke</i> .
breed,	bred,	bred.
bring,	brought,	brought.
build, <i>r.</i>	built,	built.
burn, <i>r.</i>	burnt,	burnt.
burst,	burst,	burst.
buy,	bought,	bought.
cast,	cast,	cast.

*If the present ends in *e* the rule of spelling requires that it be dropped on receiving a suffix beginning with a vowel.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
catch, <i>r.</i>	caught,	caught.
chide,	chid,	chidden, chid.
choose,	chose,	chosen.
cleave (adhere), <i>r.</i>	clave,	cleaved.
cleave (split),	clove, cleft, <i>clave</i> ,	cloven, cleft.
cling,	clung,	clung.
clothe, <i>r.</i>	clad,	clad.
come, <i>be-, over-</i>	came,	come.
cost,	cost,	cost.
creep,	crept,	crept.
crow, <i>r.</i>	crew,	crowed.
cut,	cut,	cut.
dare* (venture), <i>r.</i>	durst,	dared.
deal,	dealt,	dealt.
dig, <i>r.</i>	dug,	dug.
do,	did,	done.
draw,	drew,	drawn.
dream, <i>r.</i>	dreamt,	dreamt.
drink,	drank,	drank, drunk.
drive,	drove,	driven.
dwell, <i>r.</i>	dwelt,	dwelt.
eat,	ate, eat,	eaten, <i>eat.</i>
fall,	fell,	fallen.
feed,	fed,	fed.
feel,	felt,	felt.
fight,	fought,	fought.
find,	found,	found.
flee,	fled,	fled.
fling,	flung,	flung.
fly,	flew,	flown.
forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
freeze,	froze,	frozen.
freight, <i>r.</i>	freighted,	fraught.
get,	got,	got, <i>gotten.</i>
gild,	gilded, gilt,	gilded, gilt.

*Dare, to challenge, is regular.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
gird, <i>r.</i>	girt,	girt.
give,	gave,	given.
go,	went,	gone.
grave; <i>r.</i>	graved,	graven.
grind,	ground,	ground.
grow,	grew,	grown.
hang,* <i>r.</i>	hung,	hung.
have,	had,	had.
hear,	heard,	heard.
heave, <i>r.</i>	hove,	hoven.
hew, <i>r.</i>	hewed,	hewn.
hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.
hit,	hit,	hit.
hold,	held,	held, holden.
hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
keep,	kept,	kept.
kneel, <i>r.</i>	knelt,	knelt.
knit, <i>r.</i>	knit,	knit.
know,	knew,	known.
lade (load), <i>r.</i>	laded,	laden.
lay (to place), <i>in-</i>	laid,	laid.
lead,	led,	led.
lean, <i>r.</i>	leant,	leant.
leap, <i>r.</i>	leapt,	leapt.
leave,	left,	left.
lend,	lent,	lent.
let,	let,	let.
lie* (recline),	lay,	lain.
light, <i>r.</i>	lit,	lit.
lose,	lost,	lost.
make,	made,	made.
mean,	meant,	meant.
meet,	met,	met.
mow, <i>r.</i>	mowed,	mown.
pay,	paid,	paid.

*Hang, to take life, and lie, to deceive, are regular.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
pen * (inclose), <i>r.</i>	pent,	pent.
prove, <i>r.</i>	proved,	<i>proven.</i>
put,	put,	put.
quit, <i>r.</i>	quit,	quit.
read,	read,	read.
rend,	rent,	rent.
rid,	rid,	rid.
ride,	rode, <i>rid,</i>	rode, ridden, <i>rid.</i>
ring,	rang, rung,	rung.
rise,	rose,	risen.
rive, <i>r.</i>	rived,	riuen.
run,	ran,	run.
saw, <i>r.</i>	sawed,	sawn.
say,	said,	said.
see,	saw,	seen.
seek,	sought,	sought.
seethe, <i>r.</i>	seethed,	sodden.
sell,	sold,	sold.
send,	sent,	sent.
set,	set,	set.
shake,	shook,	shaken.
shape, <i>r.</i>	shaped,	shapen.
shave, <i>r.</i>	shaved,	shaven.
shear, <i>r.</i>	sheared,	shorn.
shed,	shed,	shed.
shine, <i>r.</i>	shone,	shone.
shoe,	shod,	shod.
shoot,	shot,	shot.
show, <i>r.</i>	Showed,	shown.
shred,	shred,	shred.
shrink,	shrunk, shrank,	shrunk, <i>shrunken.</i>
shut,	shut,	shut.
sing,	sang, sung,	sung.
sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
sit,	sat,	sat.

* Pen, to write, is regular.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
slay,	slew,	slain.
sleep,	slept,	slept.
slide, <i>r.</i>	slid,	slidden, slid.
sling,	slung,	slung.
slink,	slunk,	slunk.
slit, <i>r.</i>	slit,	slit.
smell, <i>r.</i>	smelt,	smelt.
smite,	smote,	smitten, <i>smit.</i>
sow (scatter). <i>r.</i>	sowed,	sown.
speak, <i>be-</i>	spoke, <i>spake.</i>	spoken, <i>spoke.</i>
speed,	sped,	sped.
spell, <i>r.</i>	spelt,	spelt.
spend,	spent,	spent.
spill, <i>r.</i>	spilt,	spilt.
spin,	spun, <i>span,</i>	spun.
spit,*	spit, <i>spat,</i>	spit, <i>spitten.</i>
split,	split,	split.
spread,	spread,	spread.
spring,	sprang, sprung,	sprung.
stand,	stood,	stood.
stave, <i>r.</i>	stove,	stove.
steal,	stole,	stolen.
stick,	stuck,	stuck.
sting,	stung,	stung.
stride,	strode, strid,	stridden, strid.
strike,	struck,	struck, <i>stricken.</i>
string,	strung,	strung.
strive,	strove,	striven.
strow, <i>r.</i>	strowed,	strown.
swear,	swore, <i>sware,</i>	sworn.
sweat, <i>r.</i>	sweat,	sweat.
sweep,	swept,	swept.
swell, <i>r.</i>	swelled,	swollen.
swim,	swam, swum,	swum.
swing,	swung,	swung.

* *Spit*, to put on a spit, is regular.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
take,	took,	taken.
teach,	taught,	taught.
tear,	tore,	torn.
tell,	told,	told.
think, <i>be-</i>	thought,	thought.
thrive, <i>r.</i>	throve,	thriven.
throw,	threw,	thrown.
thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
tread,	trod,	trodden, trod.
wax (grow),	waxed,	waxed, <i>waxen.</i>
wear,	wore,	worn.
weave,	wove,	woven, wove.
weep,	wept,	wept.
wet, <i>r.</i>	wet,	wet.
whet, <i>r.</i>	whet,	whetted.
win,	won,	won.
wind,	wound,	wound.
work, <i>r.</i>	wrought,	wrought.
wring,	wrong,	wrong.
write,	wrote, <i>writ,</i>	written, writ.

371. Defective Verbs. The verb *ought** is wanting in some of its principal parts. In the sentence, *The children ought to be attentive*, *ought* is in the present tense, and in, *They ought to have gone yesterday*, it is in the past tense. But it is wanting in the participial forms. “Had ought” is therefore incorrect.

A defective verb is one that lacks one or more of the principal parts; as, *shall*, *may*, *can*.

[Make a list of defective verbs as they are discovered.]

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

372. Rome was an ocean of flame. Height and depth were covered with red surges that rolled before the blast

* *Ought* is an old form of the past tense of *owe*.

like an endless tide. The billows burst up the sides of the hills, which they turned into instant volcanoes, exploding volumes of smoke and fire; then plunged into the depths in a hundred glowing cataracts, then climbed and consumed again.

All was clamor, violent struggle, and helpless death. Men and women of the highest rank were on foot, trampled by the rabble that had lost all respect of conditions. One dense mass of miserable life, irresistible from its weight, crushed by the narrow streets, and scorched by the flames over their heads, rolled through the gates like an endless stream of black lava.

What is described in this extract?

Study carefully the simile of the conflagration to an ocean storm.

Describe in your own language the picture painted in the second paragraph, and then compare it with the author's description.

What gates are referred to?

Trace the simile of the conflagration to a volcanic eruption in both paragraphs.

What are the grammatical relations of *ocean, tide, exploding, plunged, depths, cataracts, on foot?*

Point out all the past participles. Name the principal parts of each verb.

INFLECTION OF VERBS.

MOOD.

373. The sentence, *He is coming to town to-day*, makes a positive statement of a fact. The verb is in the indicative mood. Why called indicative? (See dictionary.)

But in the sentence, *He is possibly coming to town to-day*, the meaning of the copula is modified by *possibly*. The fact is not so positively asserted as it was before. The verb is in the indicative mood, but its meaning is changed by the

modifying word *possibly*. When we say, *He may be coming to town to-day*, the assertion is made less positive than *is coming* would be by changing the mood of the verb from *is* (indicative) to *may be* (potential). *He necessarily will come to town* and *He must come to town* express the same meaning and show two ways of modifying the assertion.

It is here shown that a verb in the indicative mood with a copula modifier, and a verb in the potential mood may express the same modification of the assertion. (See page 97.)

374. Mood is an inflection of the verb to show the manner of the assertion.

Number of Moods. Grammarians do not agree in regard to the number of moods, but there are certainly three; viz., the indicative, the potential, and the imperative.

375. The indicative mood shows the assertion to be positive and unmodified; as, "The Spring *brings* the flowers."

376. The potential mood shows that the predicate-attribute is asserted of the subject in a conditional, contingent, or uncertain way, or that the connection between the subject and the predicate-attribute is necessary.

1. The rain *may come* (uncertain).
2. *Were you to come I would remain* (conditional).
3. He *might go* should his health permit (contingency).
4. Some days *must be* dark and dreary (necessity).

377. The imperative mood shows the assertion to be so modified as to convert it into a command or entreaty; as, *Go* at once. *Come* quickly.

EXERCISE.

378. Select the verbs in the following sentences and state whether they are: 1, pure or attributive; 2, transitive or intransitive; 3, regular or irregular; 4, in the indicative, potential, or imperative mood.

- John threw the ball.
The mice ate all the cheese
Who broke the window?
Fred has sent the book.
We cut the grass yesterday.
The fire blazes brightly.
He goes on Sunday to the church.
He sits among his boys.
He hears the parson pray and preach.
Wake from thy nest, Robin Redbreast.
Grieve not, my children.
Chase all thy fears away.
Look up at the brooding clouds on high.
Hush! A battle is lost and won.
Though he slay me I will trust him.
Were I he I would not go.
I must speak to him before I go.
Judge not lest ye be judged.

[Continue similar exercises until the pupils see clearly that mood-inflection is another way of expressing a modification of the assertion.]

379. *The infinitive* is no longer regarded as a mood of the verb, but as a verbal noun, an adjective, or an adverb. See page 60. It is called *verbal* because, like the attributive verb, it often takes an object to complete its meaning; as in the sentence, *To steal a pin is wrong*. *To steal* is an abstract noun in this sentence, denoting action, and is used as the subject of the sentence. But *to steal* is limited by the object *pin*, like an attributive verb. It may be limited by an adverb, also.

380. In abridged clauses the infinitive often retains something of the asserting nature of the verb; for example, *He advised me to go* (that I go). *Me* has here the double use of object of *advised* and subject of *to go*. There is an implied assertion in *to go*. *Me to go* is an abridged clause.

381. Some of the forms included in the definition of the potential mood are called **subjunctive** by many grammarians; as, “*Were he to go I would remain.*” But the difference between the contingency expressed by “*were he to go*” and “*should he go*” is not so great as to justify a separate mood.

[The true meaning of *mood* in grammar is seldom comprehended by the young learner. The teachings of this book in regard to the nature of the pure verb, or copula, will make it easier to present mood so clearly that most of the pupils in the class can understand it. If the pupils are led to compare frequently the two methods of modifying the assertion illustrated in section 373 they will the more readily learn the function of mood in the inflection of the verb. Much of the present confusion in teaching English grammar has arisen because the early English grammarians constructed the first English grammars on the pattern of Latin grammars. In Latin and in German there is a change of inflection for every important change in the use of words. Inflection has almost disappeared from English. Most grammatical questions can be answered only by discovering the use of the word in expressing the thought.]

Express the following thoughts, as nearly as you can, by the use of the potential mood:

The ship is, perhaps, in sight.

Possibly thy blessings will ever last.

He has gone to war, perhaps.

He will possibly have come by to-morrow.

He had gone, may be, before you arrived.

Was it possible for him to be condemned with such evidence in his favor?

Vesuvius will possibly bury other cities in the future.

Express the following thoughts, as well as you can, by the use of the indicative mood and copula modifiers of the verb:

His error might have arisen from a misunderstanding of the order.

May it please your grace.

A man might have had all those qualities and yet have failed.

I could not have been missed much longer by the most heedless inquirer.

All difficulties may be removed in time.

May you believe I did not so counsel him.

(You will believe, I hope, that, etc.)

NOTE.—Not all contingent thoughts can be expressed by the indicative mood with copula modifiers. There are many modifications of the assertion that require the potential and imperative mood-forms. Much study and practice is required if one would use these moods correctly in expressing his thoughts.

The potential forms of the verb may have two uses. In the sentence, "He *may come* when he wishes to," the meaning is that he has permission to come. No condition, nor contingency, nor uncertainty, nor necessity is in the mind of the speaker. It is merely stated that he is permitted to come. It is the potential form used to make a positive assertion. But in the sentence, "He *may come*, but I doubt it," there is great uncertainty expressed whether the action of *coming* is to be thought as belonging to the subject or not. There is a plain modification of the assertion. This double use of all the forms of the potential adds to the difficulty of determining whether a verb is in the potential or in the indicative mood in meaning. It is an easy matter to class it *as to form*.

The word, *must*, expresses necessity. The sentences, *I shall necessarily go*, and *I must go*, express nearly the same meaning. *Must go* shows an inflection-modification of the assertion, and *necessarily go* shows a word-modification of it. But *must* is also used to express a command. "You *must go*" is a more polite way of saying, "You *shall go*," or "Go."

EXERCISE.

382. Parse the verbs in the following:

We shall start at once.

May I go now?

Place the quotient at the right.

I could not find my friend.

Greece is a small country.
 If I were you, I should stay at home.
 Your mind is tossing on the ocean.
 The general ordered the bombardment of the fort.
 Washington was at one time a surveyor.
 You should have told me.
 If it had not rained, a large crowd would have been present.

When the natives saw Columbus, they wondered at the color of his skin.

Go to camp and interview the commander.
 Stifle they who can. (Subject of imperative in third person.)

Order is heaven's first law.

May no such storm fall on our times
 Where ruin must reform. (Where = in which.)

If a man would be invariable
 He must be like a rock, or stone, or tree.

Speak well of your friends ; of your enemies say nothing.
 Do not wait for opportunity, but work for it.
 If we subdue not our passions they will subdue us.

Whether she sprung a leak I cannot find,
 Or whether she were overset with wind.

(In the last sentence, the contingency is suggested by *whether*, and in the last line by the form of the verb, also. The thought demands a potential (or subjunctive) mood to express it, and the verbs *sprung* and *were overset* should be so parsed.)

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

- 383.** And thou hast walked about (how strange a story!)
 In Thebes's streets three thousand years ago,
 When the Memnonium was in all its glory,
 And time had not begun to overthrow
 Those temples, palaces, and piles stupendous,
 Of which the very ruins are tremendous.

(This is part of an address to a mummy.)
What is a mummy?
Where was Thebes?
What was Memnonium?
What was peculiar about the statue of Memnon?
What other ancient city by the name of Thebes?
Point out the personified words.
What peculiarity of the climate of Egypt made it possible for mummies to be preserved for thousands of years?

TENSES.

384. Not only are verbs inflected to express the different degrees of positiveness or directness of the assertion (mood), but also to indicate the *time* of the *predicate-attribute* (tense). In the sentences, *I studied yesterday*, *I study to-day*, and *I shall study to-morrow*, the time of the studying is not the same. According to the first the studying was in past time—yesterday; by the second, it is in the present; and by the third, it will be in the future—to-morrow.

Tense indicates, therefore, the time of the predicate-attribute. It does not indicate the time of the assertion.

385. **Tense** is that inflection of the verb which denotes the time of the predicate-attribute. There are three absolute tenses of the verb to correspond to the three primary divisions of time; **present**, **past**, and **future**.

386. The **present tense** shows the predicate-attribute as belonging to the subject now; as, *The birds fly* (or *are flying*) *among the trees*.

387. The **past tense** shows the attribute as belonging to the subject in past time; as, *Columbus discovered America while he was seeking India*. (The act of discovering occurred in past time; so, too, the act of seeking.)

388. The future tense shows the attribute as belonging to the subject in the future; as, *The earth will die as the moon has died. The dying of the earth will happen in the future. The earth will be dying for ages.*

NOTE.—The learner will note that the thought, *Columbus discovered America*, is now in his mind. Each one of us now asserts the predicate of the subject as we think this judgment. The asserting act is in the present time, while the action of Columbus, his discovery, was in the past time. The different tenses do not have reference to the assertion (the act of the thinker), therefore, but to the predicate-attribute. We have a *present* judgment that Columbus did in the *past* discover America.

[The teacher should dwell here until the pupils see clearly that tense in grammar indicates the time of the *attribute*, and not the time in which the judgment is made.]

389. What Relative Tenses Are. There are three other tenses that arise in the following manner:

1. In the sentence, *I have studied my lesson*, it is shown that the studying is completed at the time of making the judgment. This is called the *present perfect tense*.

2. In the sentence, *I had studied my lessons*, it is shown that the studying was completed at some point of time in the past. This is called the *past perfect tense*.

3. In the sentence, *I shall have studied my lesson*, it is shown that the studying will be completed at some point of time in the future. This is called the *future perfect tense*.

390. The time of the completion can be made still more definite by the use of words that state the exact time to which reference is made, as :

a. I have studied my lesson this morning (present perfect).

b. I had studied my lesson last evening (past perfect.)

c. I shall have studied my lesson by nine o'clock (future perfect).

391. The present tense shows the relation of the predicate-attribute to the thought-subject to be in the present time; as, "The rain *is* falling."

392. The past tense shows the relation of the predicate-attribute to the thought-subject to have been in the past; as, "Washington *commanded* the armies."

393. The future tense shows that the relation of the predicate-attribute to the thought-subject will be in the future; as, "Harvest *will follow* the seed-time."

394. The present perfect tense shows the action as completed in past time with reference to the present; as, "The vine *has grown* an inch in the night."

395. The past perfect tense shows the action as completed in the past with reference to some past time; as, "The army *had surrendered* before the order came."

396. The future perfect tense shows the action as completed in the future with reference to some future time; as, "The war *will have ended* by winter." The special point of time is made definite by the adverbial phrase.

[Use the above six tenses in original sentences.]

EXERCISE.

397. Give the principal parts, the kind (pure or attributive), the form (regular or irregular), the use (transitive or intransitive), the mood, and the tense of each verb in the following sentences.

(Note that all except the present and past tense-forms are verb phrases.)

This was done by Indians.

The audience cheered the speaker.

When she had gone about two miles and the dogs were evidently gaining again, she crossed the broad, deep brook, climbed the steep bank, and fled on in the direction of the Mount Marcy trail.

There is, among the Adirondack visitors, always a great deal of conversation about bears.

In this blackberry patch bears had been seen.

I could hear on all sides the tinkle of the bells.

At about the same moment the bear saw me, stopped eating berries, and regarded me with a glad surprise.

It is all very well to imagine what you would do under such circumstances.

In half an hour, at any point, one can put himself into solitude.

The danger will be great.

The result will have been reported by noon.

Lift up your heads, oh ye gates.

We must soon depart.

Had I known your difficulty, I would have helped you.

If the weather be fine, the procession will be large.

If the weather were fine, the procession would be larger.

PERSON AND NUMBER.

398. The verb must agree with the subject in *person* and *number*. Nearly all of the changes in the verb to show

person and number occur in the second and third persons, singular number; as, *I go, thou goest, he goes. I was, you were, he was. I have gone, he has gone.* In most cases the person and number of the verb must be determined, not by the inflection, but by the sense.

399. It has been shown that there is an *old style* of English in which the singular of the personal pronoun, second person, is nom. *thou*, poss. *thy* or *thine*, obj. *thee*.

This form is used in the Bible and in addressing the Supreme Being. (See page 143.) When these forms are used the verb is inflected in the present and past tenses as follows :

	PRESENT TENSE.		PAST TENSE.	
	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>First per.</i>	I go	we go	I loved	we loved
<i>Second per.</i>	thou goest	ye go	thou lovedst	ye loved
<i>Third per.</i>	he goeth	they go;	he loved	they loved.

Write the inflection in the old style of *have, had, will, shall, may, might, could, and should* in the present and past tenses.

401. Order of Parsing the Verb.

1. Kind—pure or attributive,
2. Form—regular or irregular,
3. Use—transitive or intransitive,
4. Mood—indicative, potential, imperative,
5. Tense,
6. Person, } (To agree with subject.)
7. Number,

[Before beginning the study of the conjugation the pupils should have a good deal of practice in distinguishing the different classes and inflections of the verb, and in giving the principal parts. The conjugation should be a summary and classification of facts that have been learned already by the study of verbs used in sentences. It is supposed that the teacher and the pupils will provide exercises for practice adapted to the attainments of the class.]

EXERCISE.

402. Parse the verbs in the following sentences :

My heart leaps up when I behold
A rainbow in the sky.

Cowards die many times before their death.

We wept that one so lovely
Should have a life so brief.

The sun now rose upon the right,
Out of the sea came he,
Still hid in mist, and on the left
Went down into the sea.

The stout old ivy shall never fade
From its pale and hearty green.

Here shall he see no enemy
But winter and rough weather.

All ages have fled and their works decayed.

Sing, sweet thrushes, forth and sing ?

When she had passed, it seemed like the ceasing of ex-
quisite music.

Much Evangeline wept at the tale, and to know that
another
Hapless heart like her own had loved and been disappointed.

May no such storm fall in our times
Where ruin must reform.

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

403. The stag at eve had drunk his fill,
Where danced the moon on Monan's rill,
And deep his midnight lair had made
In lone Glenartney's hazel shade;
But when the sun his beacon red
Had kindled on Ben Voirlich's head
The deep-mouthed bloodhounds' heavy bay
Resounded up the rocky way.

CONJUGATION.

404. Conjugation of the Verb. The conjugation of a verb is an orderly arrangement of its different forms in all of the moods, tenses, persons, and numbers.

405. The different moods and tenses are formed either by a change in the principal, or root, verb (present indicative), or by the use of other words, making a verb-phrase. In the tenses, present, *I see*, past, *I saw*, the past tense is shown by a change of the root verb, *see*, to *saw*; but in the future tense, *I shall see*, a verb-phrase is used. In *I shall have seen*, there is both a change in the root-word and the use of other words to make the verb-phrase.

406. How the Different Verb-Phrases are Made.

1. By the use of *shall* and *should*. The unabridged dictionary will tell you that *shall* was once an independent verb, and that its past tense is *should*. But it is now used only to form verb-phrases; as, *I shall go*. *He should follow me* (future indicative and past potential).

2. By the use of *will* and *would*. These are now used as aids in forming verb-phrases; as, *He will come*. *John would not answer*. (Future indicative and past potential.)

Will is sometimes an independent verb, but when so used its past tense is not *would*, but *willed*; as, *I willed to go*.

3. By the use of *have* or *had*; as, *Spring has come* (present perfect tense). *The winter had fled* (past perfect tense).

Have is also used as an independent verb; as, *We have (possess) many blessings*.

4. By the use of *may* or *might*, *can* or *could*, *should*, or *would*, and of *must*, all of which were once independent verbs, but are now merely auxiliaries that help to form verb-phrases; as, *He may, can, or must go* (present potential). *He might, could, would, or should go* (past potential).

EXERCISE.

407. Let the pupils describe the formation of all the tenses of many verbs in the indicative mood, as follows:

Present—first prin. part (*go*).

Past—second prin. part (*went*).

Future—*shall* and first prin. part (*shall go*).

Present perfect—*have* and third prin. part (*have gone*).

Past perfect—*had* and third prin. part (*had gone*).

Future perfect—*shall have* and third prin. part (*shall have gone*).

408. Write out the conjugation of the verb, *sing*, in all the tenses of the indicative mood.

Example:—

PRESENT TENSE.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>First per.</i>	I sing	we sing
<i>Second per.</i>	you sing	you sing
<i>Third per.</i>	he sings	they sing

POTENTIAL MOOD.

409. [The pupils should discover that the definitions of the tenses in the indicative do not apply to the potential mood. In this mood the verb-phrase generally expresses a modification of the

copula or assertion, but does not show the time of the attribute as clearly as it does in the tenses of the indicative. In the past perfect tense, *would have come*, it is not shown that the action is past and completed at some past time. The names of the potential tenses are borrowed from the indicative, but they do not mean the same as in the indicative. The time of the attribute varies with the meaning. I can say, properly, that *he could walk yesterday*, or *he could walk now*, or *he could walk to-morrow*, according to the thought expressed by the sentence.]

410. How the Tenses of the Potential Mood Are Formed.

All the tense forms of this mood are verb-phrases.

1. **The present tense** is formed by *may*, *can*, or *must* and the first principal part; as, "The sun *may shine* to-morrow."

2. **The past tense** is formed by *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should* and the first principal part; as, "A storm *might arise* in the night."

3. **The present perfect tense** is formed by *may have*, *can have*, or *must have* and the third principal part; as, "The sun *may have arisen* before the boat landed."

4. **The past perfect tense** is formed by *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, or *should have* and the third principal part; as, "The ship *might have sailed* last week if the captain had arrived."

EXERCISE.

411. Write out the conjugation of the following verbs in the potential mood: *sit, strike, hurt, call*.

[It is much better for the pupils to build up the conjugation of a verb under the direction of the teacher than to commit it to memory from the text-book.]

412. **Synopsis.** A synopsis is a short way of conjugating a verb by naming one person in each tense. A synopsis of the verb *see* in the potential is:

Pres. I *may see*
Past I *might see*

Pres. perfect I *may have seen*
Past perfect I *might have seen*

EXERCISE.

413. Write out the synopsis of a regular and of an irregular verb in both the indicative and potential moods, using the first person singular for one and the third person plural for the other.

[It is an excellent exercise to have the pupils practice describing the different tenses in the different moods. Example:

Teacher—"Indicative, future perfect, third, singular."

Pupil—"He and will have and the third principal part."

Teacher—"Potential, past perfect, second person, plural."

Pupil—"You and might have and the third principal part."]

CONJUGATION OF BE.

414. The verb *be* is generally a pure verb or copula, but when it affirms the *existence* of the thought-subject it is an attributive verb; as, *God is*, meaning that *God exists*.

As an attributive verb it is conjugated in all the moods and tenses like any other attributive verb.

[The primitive use of the verb *be* was to express existence. It could have no tense-forms as a mere copulative verb, for *tense* denotes the time of the predicate attribute. But it can have mode-forms, whether it is an attributive or a pure verb.]

The *subjunctive* of the verb *be* is given in the following conjugation in those tenses in which it differs from the indicative and potential forms. The conjunction *if* is omitted from the conjugation, since it is no part of the verb.]

NOTE.—Those who desire to pursue the study of mood beyond the suggestions given in the text are referred to the Appendix. The subject is not an easy one, since it deals with the different attitudes of the mind respecting the connection between the thought-subjects and the thought-predicates in the judgments it forms. There may be a positive judgment that the predicate either does or does not belong to the subject. This is expressed by the indicative mood. But we make many contingent, or hypothetical, judgments, and many commands, all of which are modified forms of the simple affirmative judgment. These different kinds of judgments give rise to moods in grammar.

415. The following are the different mood and teuse forms of the verb *be*:

INDICATIVE MOOD.

		<i>Present.</i>	<i>Present perfect.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past perfect.</i>	<i>Future.</i>	<i>Future perfect.</i>
<i>First person</i>	I am	have been	had been	had	had been	shall be	shall have been
<i>Second person</i>	{ thou art you are	hast been	wast	hadst been	wilt be	will be	wilt have been
<i>Third person</i>	he is	have been	were	had been	will be	will be	will have been
		has been	was	had been	will be	will be	will have been
<i>First person</i>	we are	have been	were	had been	shall be	shall have been	
<i>Second person</i>	ye or you are	have been	were	had been	will be	will have been	
<i>Third person</i>	they are	have been	were	had been	will be	will have been	

POTENTIAL MOOD.

		<i>SINGULAR.</i>	<i>PAST.</i>	<i>PRES.</i>	<i>SINGULAR.</i>	<i>PAST.</i>	<i>PRES.</i>
<i>First person</i>	I may be	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Present perfect.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past perfect.</i>
<i>Second person</i>	{ thou mayst be you may be		may have been	might have been	may have been	might be	might have been
<i>Third person</i>	he may be		may have been	mightst have been	may have been	might be	might have been
			may have been	might have been	may have been	might be	might have been
<i>First person</i>	we may be	may have been	may have been	might be	may have been	might be	might have been
<i>Second person</i>	ye or you may be	may have been	may have been	might be	may have been	might be	might have been
<i>Third person</i>	they may be	may have been	may have been	might be	may have been	might be	might have been

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
<i>First person</i>	I be	were
<i>Second person</i>	} thou be } you be	wert
<i>Third person</i>		were
	he be	were

PLURAL.

<i>First person</i>	we be	were
<i>Second person</i>	ye or you be	were
<i>Third person</i>	they be	were

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

<i>Second person</i>	be thou or you
----------------------	----------------

PLURAL.

<i>Second person</i>	be ye or you
----------------------	--------------

OTHER VERB-FORMS.

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Present perfect.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
INFINITIVES	to be	to have been	
PARTICIPLES	being	having been	been

THE PROGRESSIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

416. When an attribute of action is predicated of the subject, the copula and the attribute may be expressed by separate words; as, "The birds *are singing*." This is the **progressive form** of the verb when continuous action of the thought-subject is expressed.

NOTE.—In the progressive form the verb *be* is a *pure* verb used to *assert* the attribute of the subject. The tense forms of *be* used in making the progressive conjugation denote the time of the attribute that is asserted and not the time of the assertion. In the sentence, *The winter will be coming*, the tense-form, *will be*, shows, not that the *assertion* but that the *coming* will be in the future. The assertion is now that the coming will be in the *future*.

417. The conjugation of the progressive form is made by adding the *present participle* to each of the mood and tense forms of the verb *be*.

EXERCISE.

418. Write a synopsis of the progressive conjugation of the verb *sing* in first person, singular.

Example:

Indicative Mood.

<i>Present</i>	I am singing	<i>Present perfect</i>	I have been singing
<i>Past</i>	I was singing	<i>Past perfect</i>	I had been singing
<i>Future</i>	I shall be singing	<i>Future perfect</i>	I shall have been singing

VOICE.

419. When the action expressed by the predicate proceeds from the subject the verb is said to be in the **active voice**; as, *Rolling stones gather no moss*.

When the action expressed by the predicate is directed to or upon the subject, the verb is said to be in the **passive voice**; as, *Moss is gathered by a stone at rest*.

In the sentence, *The man is striking the ball*, the word *man*, which names the actor, is the subject of the sentence; but in the sentence, *The ball is struck by the man*, that which was the object of the verb when the progressive form was used, is the subject of the verb when the passive form is used. The receiver of the action becomes the subject of the thought, and the completed action, *struck*, is affirmed of it. The name of the actor is used in a modifying phrase.

420. Whenever the word denoting the receiver of the action expressed by the verb is the subject of the sentence, the verb is in the **passive voice**.

Justify the name *passive* for this form of the verb.

421. To conjugate a verb in the passive voice add the past participle of the verb to the different mood and tense forms of the verb, *be*.

Write out the conjugation of the verb, *strike*, in the passive voice, indicative mood.

[This subject should not be left until the class can readily describe the construction of every tense in every mood, in the active and passive voices. This achievement is not at all difficult provided the distinguishing marks of the simple, progressive, and passive conjugations, respectively, are clearly understood and kept in mind by the pupil.]

THE IMPERATIVE MOOD.

422. The imperative mood is the first principal part of the verb and has no inflection; as, *go*, *come*. It is used in commanding or entreating. The subject is generally in the second person, either singular or plural, and it is not often expressed in a separate word. A single word may perform the three offices of subject, copula, and predicate; as, *Go and I will follow*. *Go*, in this sentence, expresses in a single word what is not so well expressed by the sentence, *You shall go*.

423. Parse the imperatives in the following:

Trust no future howe'er pleasant,
Let the dead Past bury its dead,
Act, act in the living present,
Heart within and God o'erhead.

NOTE.—What is commonly known as the *subjunctive mood* does not express an essentially different modification of the copula than does the *potential*. When the contingency expressed is that of condition, the verb-form does not always use the potential auxiliaries; as, “*Were* he present, I would act differently.” But there is not enough difference between the kind of modification of the assertion in this sentence and in the following, “Death *were* (would be) gain in such a case,” to justify two separate moods. The sentence, “He *were* (would be) no lion, *were* not Romans hinds,” shows the resemblance of the potential to the so-called subjunctive very plainly.

The first *were* is declared to be potential and the second subjunctive by those who regard these as separate moods. There is sufficient difference in the *verb-forms* themselves, which denote contingency, to justify, perhaps, the recognition of the subjunctive *form* in the conjugation, and this has been done in this book. When a condition is expressed that is contrary to the fact, the subjunctive form is always used; as, "Were I he, I would act differently."

424. The Infinitives. There are two infinitives, the *present* and the *perfect*; as, present, *to love*, perfect, *to have loved*.

They perform the offices of nouns, or adjectives, or adverbs, according to their meaning in the sentence, but they retain enough of the character of attributive verbs to be modified by an adverb or by a noun in the objective case.

NOTE.—The infinitive differs from other verb-forms in having the word, *to*, for its sign. It is not a preposition unless it expresses a relation of its object to some other word. In the sentence, *To forgive is divine*, *to forgive* means the same as *forgiveness*. *To* does not show the relation between any two ideas in the thought. It is not a preposition, therefore. *To*, when so used, is called the *sign of the infinitive*. This sign is sometimes omitted; as, "The news made him *rejoice*."

The infinitive never asserts anything of a subject, and for this reason is not a verb. But in some sentences it fills an office akin to asserting; as, "I ordered him *to go*" (he should go). In this case the pronoun, *him*, is parsed as the object of *ordered* and the subject of *to go*. The subject of the infinitive is in the objective case.

EXERCISE.

425. Designate the complete subject and the complete predicate of each of the following sentences, and parse each verb and each infinitive:

This only grant me, that my means may lie
Too low for envy, for contempt too high.

How could this noble fabric be designed
And fashioned by a maker, brute and blind?

I should as soon think of swimming across Charles River when I wish to go to Boston, as of reading all my books in the originals when I have them rendered for me in my mother tongue.

Men must be taught as if you taught them not.

I hear her sing.

Let the wicked forsake his way.

If you wish a thing to be well done you must do it yourself.

Silence now is brooding like a gentle spirit o'er the Still and pulseless world.

Spices and jewels
From valley and sea,
Armies and banners
Are buried in thee.

426. Participles. Review sections 126, 127.

Verbs have three **participles**. Those of the verb, *see*, are, —present, *seeing*; past, *seen*; perfect, *having seen*. They are of the nature of adjective modifiers, and the first two may be employed, as has been shown, in forming the tenses of verbs.

427. What are the participles of *be*? of *sit*? of *sing*? of *lay*? of *live*?

Which two of the participles are principal parts of the verb?

EXERCISE.

428. Point out the participles in the following, and the nouns whose meaning they modify:

The man wearing the black hat is the prince.

The coat worn by the beggar was ragged.

We saw a boy beating his horse.

The farmer having caught the boys stealing apples punished them.

The arrow glancing off the tree struck the king.

The children coming home from school
Look in at the open door.

The man having acted thus was expelled from the society.
Each evening sees some task begun.

The fire fanned by the wind spread rapidly.

The boy thrown from his horse was severely injured.

429. The Gerund. In section 133 it was found that the *gerund* has the form of the present participle but the meaning of a noun. It differs from other nouns in that it may be limited by an object, or by an adverb. It is called a *verbal noun* for this reason. It often performs the office of the infinitive.

EXERCISE.

430. Point out the *gerunds* in the following sentences, and parse and give the modifiers of each gerund:

By cherishing Cæsar the general worked his own destruction.

True knowledge consists in knowing things, not words.

By trampling upon laws he made himself a tyrant.

The casting out devils, the raising the dead, the healing the sick, were proof of his divinity.

He was punished for *being found* (passive gerund) in bad company.

I did not learn of his reporting the case.

The father was sad from having lost his son.

I like reading literature.

Mary learned shooting with a pistol.

He dislikes studying music.

After hearing the news he departed.

It was from our finding gold that we concluded to remain.

431. Action and quality are both attributes of objects. Sometimes an attributive word expresses both quality and action; as, "A *speaking* bird," "A *growing* tree." Here the quality seems to predominate in the thought. In such cases the attributive word would not often be limited by an object. But when the action-idea is prominent, as in "I saw him *riding* a bicycle," or "He passed, *whistling* a tune," the attribute-word is limited by an object, like a transitive verb. We see, therefore, that attribute-words, whether nouns or adjectives, may be limited by object-words. This view will simplify some grammatical puzzles that arise from denying that the adjective and noun can be modified by an object.

432. Do as an Auxiliary. The forms *do* and *did* are often used as auxiliaries in asking questions, in denying, or for emphasis; as, *Did he come?* *He certainly did come.* *I did not see it.* It is only so used in the present and past tenses of the indicative.

MODEL FOR CONJUGATION.

433.

THE ACTIVE FORMS.

I.	II.	III.
Present.	Past.	Future.
I we you they he (she or it). tells.	I we you they he (she or it) . told.	I we you they he (she or it) . shall or will tell.
IV.	V.	VI.
Present Perfect.	Past Perfect.	Future Perfect.
I we you they he (she or it) . has told.	I we you they he (she or it) . had told.	I we you they he (she or it) . shall or will have told.

THE PASSIVE FORMS.

I. <i>Present.</i>	II. <i>Past.</i>	III. <i>Future.</i>
I am told. we you they he (she or it). is told.	I { was told. he (she or it) we you { were told. they they	I { shall or we you they he (she or it)
IV. <i>Present Perfect.</i>	V. <i>Past Perfect.</i>	VI. <i>Future Perfect.</i>
I { we { you { they { he (she or it) { has been told.	I { we { you { they { he (she or it)	I { we { you { they { he (she or it)

THE PARTICIPLES.

I. <i>Present.</i>	II. <i>Past.</i>	III. <i>Perfect.</i>
<i>Active</i> , telling. <i>Passive</i> , being told.	told.	having told. having been told.
INFINITIVES.		
(to) tell.		

EXERCISES IN REVIEW.

- 434.** 1. Select participles, infinitives, and gerunds in the following and state the office of each in the sentence.
2. Select the auxiliaries and tell the use of each.
3. State whether the verbs are in the simple, progressive, or passive conjugation. Change the passive to the progressive without changing the meaning.

He stood wringing his hands.

The attempt to land the men proved unsuccessful.

In fact, he declared it was of no use to work on his farm.

In a word, Rip was ready to attend to anybody's business but his own.

Your going so soon disappointed us.

Never be ashamed of having done what was right.

The man making the box is a carpenter.

Officers grown old in the service of the country may be pensioned and retired.

We found roses growing among the weeds.

I dislike telling them.

4. Write all of the participle forms of the following verbs in all the conjugations:

May have seen, shall go, will open, are waiting, had been offered, might help, was helped, have seen, have been seen, should be built, is taking, is taken, takes, walked, was walking, has written, has been writing, has been written, shall be written, shall write, may be coming, may come, can be taught, can teach, was asking, shall have been finished, must see, would go, should ask, had taken.

5. Tell of what each mood and tense of the passive form of the verb *strike* is composed.

Example:

"What is present indicative, first person, singular?"

Ans.: "Present tense of *be* (am) and past participle (struck)."

6. Make sentences showing the use of all the principal parts of each of the following verbs: Do, see, find, blow, throw, had, sit, set, teach, catch, learn, go, lie, lay, take, etc.

7. What is wrong in the following, and why?

I have went many times.

He had already took it.

He done the work.

I seen the parade.

He teached us to spell.

The dog laid down.

Set down and rest.

8. Give the synopsis of each of the following verbs in **all** the moods:

Forget, awake, rise, raise, do, see, be, place, try, know, teach, freeze, fight, take, make, sow, learn, tell, write, drive.

9. Change the following from active to passive voice without changing the meaning:

The child caught the ball.

The teacher explained the lesson.

I saw the procession.

We study grammar.

We do our work.

We did our work.

The pupil has recited the poem.

He will take the package.

John might have written the letter.

John may have written the letter.

Many will have noticed the change.

The school shall sing this song.

We cannot always undo our mistakes.

10. What is the mood of the verb in each of the following?

Let me see the map.

Multiply the numerators together for a new numerator, and the denominators for a new denominator.

He would fish all day without a murmur.

He assisted at their sports, made their playthings, taught them to fly kites and shoot marbles, and told them long stories of ghosts, witches, and wizards.

Whoever has made a voyage up the Hudson must remember the Catskill Mountains.

At the foot of these fairy mountains, the voyager may have descried the light smoke curling up from a village whose shingle roofs gleam among the trees, just where the blue tints of the upland melt away into the fresh green of the nearer landscape.

You may find your book there, but it is hardly probable.
Would we were there!

If I be there I will help you.

If I were going I would take your message.

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

- 435.** Neither a borrower nor a lender be;
For loan oft loses both itself and friend,
And borrowing dulls the edge of husbandry.
This above all—to thine own self be true,
And it must follow as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man.

Who is the author?

Where are the lines found?

What is the meaning of the second and third lines?

Is it true that if one is true to himself he cannot be false to another? Explain.

Give grammatical relation of *borrowing*; of *This above all*; of *day*; of the second line.

Are there two conjunctions in the first line?

What is the use of each?

What does *as the night the day* modify?

CHAPTER XIV.

ADVERBS.

436. It has been shown on pages 27, 28, and 53:

1. That the *adjective* expresses quality, action, or some other attribute of an object, and is, therefore, used to modify the meaning of *nouns* and *pronouns*;
2. That the *adverb* expresses an attribute of some other attribute, and is, therefore, used to make the meaning of some *attribute-word* more definite. It may modify attributive verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs, since these all express attributes.

Write out a definition of the *adverb*.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS.

437. 1. An adverb may denote the *manner*, or *quality*, of an attribute; as, "The *swiftly* running brook." (The running is *swift*.)

2. It may express the *time* or the *place* of an attribute; as, "The *daily* returning sun." "The cloud rising *yonder* in the west."

3. It may denote *degree*, or *measure*, of the attribute; as, "He was *almost* blind, and was *very* lame." (Degree of blindness and of lameness.)

4. It may indicate *cause*; as, "He came, *therefore*."

Name the different classes of adverbs, and write a definition of each.

Adverbs { Manner or quality,
 Time,
 Place,
 Degree or measure,
 Cause.

EXERCISE.

438. Point out and classify the adverbs in the following sentences:

You are exceedingly careful.
 This rope is entirely too short.
 Soon vegetation springs up everywhere.
 When shall I go?
 The horse ran away.
 The hour passed swiftly.
 Why do you speak thus?
 The goods were carefully selected.
 We saw him frequently.
 Probably you are right.

ADVERBIAL PHRASES AND CLAUSES.

439. Whenever a phrase or a clause modifies the meaning of an attribute-word it fills the office of an adverb; as,

Where thou goest, I will go.
 The stars appear small *because they are distant from us*.
 They glide *like phantoms* into the wide world.
 He stole *out of the room*.

O'er yonder eastern hill, the twilight pale
 Walks forth *from darkness*: and the god of day,
 With bright Astraea seated by his side,
 Waits yet *to leave the ocean*.

440. An adverbial phrase is one that performs the office of an adverb in the sentence.

Define the **adverbial clause**.

EXERCISE.

441. Point out the adverbial phrases and clauses in the following and name the class to which each belongs; analyze each sentence:

The stag will fight when he can no longer flee.

Wherever you go in the northern forest, you will find deer paths.

These little paths are full of pitfalls.

I heard the bear crushing through the brush after me.

In the rear of the house, from the garden gate, ran a pathway through the great groves of oak to the skirts of the limitless prairies.

Then, as the herdsman turned to the house,

Through the gate of the garden,

Saw he the forms of the priest

And the maiden advancing to meet him.

When the weather is fair and settled, they (the Catskill Mountains) are clothed in blue and purple.

Put it where the sunlight will fall on it.

We were very greatly surprised.

From far-off hills, the panting team

For us is toiling near;

For us the raftsmen down the stream

Their island barges steer.

Rings out for us the axe-man's stroke,

In forest old and still;

For us the century-circled oak

Falls crashing down his hill.

NOTE.—It should be borne in mind that any group of words used as a part of speech and not containing a subject and a predicate is a phrase. Such groups as *very quickly*, *not so slowly*, etc., are phrases just as truly as *in the house* and *from the door*. The latter are *prepositional phrases*.

442. Sometimes a word fills the two offices of connective and adverb; as in the sentence, "The thief entered *while* the man slept." *While* is a **conjunctive-adverb**. Justify this name.

443. Sometimes a word that is commonly an adverb is used as another part of speech; as, "*Now* is a different time from *then*." Both *now* and *then* are nouns.

444. Sometimes the single word, *no* or *yes*, is equivalent to a whole sentence; as, "Did you tell him to come?" "No." (I did not tell him to come.)

These words are generally classed with adverbs, but they have nothing of the meaning of the adverb. They are signs of negative or affirmative sentences.

445. In the sentence, "He went ten *miles* the first *day*," the nouns *miles* and *day*, with their modifiers, tell *how far he went* and *in what time*. *Miles* and *day* denote limitation of the attribute, *going*, and are, therefore, used as *adverbs*. "He went *an hour ago*" is a similar idiom.

446. Sometimes *adjectives* and *adverbs* are followed by nouns in the *objective case*; as, "The knife is *worth* (adjective) a dollar," "She sings *like* (adverb) a lark."

The word *like* has several uses; for example,

I love to look on a scene *like this*
Of wild and careless play. (Adjective and preposition.)

Silence now is brooding *like* a gentle spirit o'er
The still and pulseless world. What two uses?

Like our shadows,
Our wishes lengthen as our sun declines. What two uses?

He looks like (adjective and preposition) me.

COMPARISON.

447. Adverbs, like adjectives, are inflected to indicate comparison. Most attribute-words, except those that denote action, admit of comparison. Adverbs are compared after the manner of adjectives, by adding *er* and *est* to the positive to make the comparative and superlative, or by the use of the words *more* and *most* and *less* and *least*; as, *quickly, more quickly, most quickly; slowly, less slowly, least slowly; fast, faster, fastest; soon, sooner, soonest*.

Some adverbs are compared irregularly; as, *much, more, most; ill, worse, worst*. Make a list of these (*badly, well, nigh, etc.*).

EXERCISE.

448. 1. Compare the following: Well, far, nigh, sweetly, often, and others selected by teacher or class.

2. Select the adverbs and adverb-phrases and clauses in the following, and parse the adverbs by giving the class, comparison, and use of each:

Speak more gently.

With some difficulty he got down into the glen.

The woods never seemed so vast and mysterious.

Here and there rises smoke from the camps of these savage marauders.

We hoped to find the place more easily.

The camp was less conveniently located than it had been before. (It is the convenience that is made more definite by the last clause, and not the camp nor the location.)

Now, on the fifth day, cheerily called the cock to the sleeping maids of the farmhouse.

Late in the afternoon, when the sun was near to his setting, came the roll of drums from the church-yard.

Forth came the guard.

Busily plied the freighted boats.

Farther and farther away it floated.

CHAPTER XV.

PREPOSITIONS.

449. The Preposition has been shown to be a word that connects its object to some other word so as to express some relation between the ideas for which these words stand. (See page 54.)

Because the preposition shows the relation of one idea to another its meaning may be made more definite by an adverbial modifier; as, "The cloud hung *directly* over the town."

450. A preposition may be :

1. *A single word*; as, "He ran *into* the house."
2. *A phrase*; as, "He succeeded *in spite of* opposition."

451. Object of a Preposition. Since the preposition shows the relation of an *object-idea* to some other idea, its object must always be a noun or some word, phrase, or clause used as a noun.

It may be :

1. A noun or pronoun ; as, "He lived without *reproach*."
2. A phrase ; as, "He came from *within the cave*."
3. A clause ; as, "The Admiral had no idea of *where the fleet lay*."

452. A word commonly used as a preposition sometimes unites with a verb to form a verb-phrase ; as, "The merchant *cast up* the account."

453. Prepositional Phrase. We have learned that a phrase is a group of words, connected in meaning, that does not contain a subject and predicate and is used as an element of a sentence.

A prepositional phrase is composed of a preposition and its object which together make an element of the sentence. It may have the use of a *noun*, or an *adjective*, or an *adverb*; as, "To arms (noun) was the cry"; "A home *in the mountains*" (adjective); "Flowers come *in the spring*" (adverb).

[There is no good reason for giving special prominence to prepositional phrases over others. It should be made clear to the pupils that a sentence can be broken up into as many phrases as there are groups of two or more words connected in meaning, which, taken together, perform the office of a part of speech.]

454. Uses of Prepositions. Different prepositions are used with the same word to express different relations.

Make sentences in which it will be proper to use the following prepositions with the words they accompany:

Sympathize *with, in.*
Sick *of, with.*
Part *from, with.*
Live *at, in, on, upon.*
Join *to, with.*
Concur *with, in.*
Introduce *into, to.*
Clear *of, from.*
Change *for, to, into.*

Divide *among, between.*
Accountable *to, for.*
Angry *with, at.*
Connect *with, to.*
Consistent *with, in.*
Died *of, with, from.*
Disgusted *with, at, by.*
Love *of, for, to.*

[Young people often find great difficulty in choosing the right prepositions to express their thoughts correctly.]

455. Test Exercises. What is a preposition?

Make a sentence in which a phrase is used as a preposition.

Use a clause as the object of a preposition.

Use a phrase as such object.

In what does a prepositional phrase differ from any other?

Give examples of the use of a prepositional phrase as noun ; as adjective ; as adverb.

Make a verb phrase by using a preposition.

Give sentences in which the same word is used as, (1) preposition, (2) adverb, (3) conjunction.

Point out and parse the prepositions in the following :

Rats !

They fought the dogs and killed the cats,
And bit the babies in the cradles,
And ate the cheese out of the traps,
And licked the soup from the cook's own ladles,
Split open the kegs of salted sprats,
Made nests inside men's Sunday hats,
And even spoiled the women's chats,
By drowning their speaking
With shrieking and squeaking
In fifty different sharps and flats.

Are the right prepositions used in the following sentences ?

The chairman concurred in the report with the other members of the committee.

His friend had great sympathy for him.

I sympathized for him in his affliction.

He was cleared from the charge and of all blame in the matter.

He changed water to wine, but not for evil purposes.

He was consistent in his professions with all that he did.

He died with a contagious disease.

He died from hunger.

He died in battle with many others.

I joined to him in the undertaking.

I joined with the kite-string a few more feet of twine.

I differ with you in that opinion.

CHAPTER XVI.

CONJUNCTIONS.

Review sections 21, 22, 25, 69, 70, 121, 155, 156, 157.

456. There are five kinds of connective words; namely, *verbs*, *relative pronouns*, *conjunctive adverbs*, *prepositions*, and *conjunctions*.

The distinctive office of the **conjunction** is to connect together words, phrases, and sentences of like rank, and to connect clauses to the elements they modify.

457. There are two classes of conjunctions:

1. Co-ordinate conjunctions,
2. Subordinate conjunctions.

Co-ordinate conjunctions connect words and sentences of like rank; as, *and*, *or*, *but*, etc.

Subordinate conjunctions connect clauses to the elements they modify.

[It may be that some classes using this book will be able to extend the classification of co-ordinate conjunctions to *copulative*, *adversative*, *correlative*, and *illative*, and the subordinate conjunctions into *place*, *time*, *cause*, *purpose*, *condition*, etc. But care must be taken not to make too many sub-classes in elementary grammar, lest the important ideas be made to take rank with the unimportant, and the unity and simplicity of the movement in the study of the subject be destroyed.]

458. When a conjunction connects words or phrases the sentence is an abridged compound sentence; as, *Mary*

and her brother go to school. This is an abridged form of the compound sentence, *Mary goes to school and her brother goes to school.* The learner will remember that when a *conjunction* expresses the union of two ideas, the ideas so connected hold the same rank in the thought. If the meaning were fully expressed two sentences would be formed. (See page 55.)

[In the sentence, *Three and four are seven*, the word *and* has a conjunctive meaning so far as it connects words of the same rank in the thought, but it has the meaning of *plus* or *more* in addition. We do not mean that three are seven and four are seven, but that three *plus* four are seven.]

459. The **complex sentence** is a sentence that contains a clause which fills the office of some part of speech. The thought is not more complex than is that expressed by a simple sentence. The truly complex thought is one where a foreign element is introduced; as, "He gained from Heaven, '*'twas all he wished*, a friend." (The sentence in italics has no grammatical relation to the other.)

In the sentence, "It is the common belief *that he will return to his home*," the italicized words express not the judgment of the speaker, but one represented by him to be the judgment of others. The modifying clause expresses a represented judgment. The sentence that expresses an *actual* judgment of the speaker, and also a *represented* judgment, does, to a degree, express a complex thought. This suggests a ground for calling such sentences complex. A represented judgment is one that originated with some one else than the speaker, or with the speaker in some other relation; as, "He declared *that his watch had lost half an hour in the night*."

460. Conjunctive Phrases. Sometimes a *group of words* expresses the connection between sentences, such as, *no sooner than*, *as if*, *as soon as*, and the like; as, "He started *as soon as* the order arrived."

461. It should be remembered that not all of the words commonly classed as conjunctions are always used as conjunctions. Many of these may, at times, fill the office of prepositions or adverbs.

Make a list of conjunctions that are never used as prepositions or adverbs.

EXERCISE.

462. Make sentences in which each of the following words shall be used (1) as conjunction, (2) as preposition : Except, before, but, after, besides, since.

Make sentences in which each of the following has two uses : When, while, as, ere, which, that.

EXERCISE.

463. 1. Parse *as* in the following: He acted *as* you have said.

EXAMPLE:—1. *As* connects the modifying clause to the principal clause ; it is a conjunction. 2. It shows the manner of the action ; it is an adverbial conjunction. 3. It connects a subordinate clause with that which it modifies ; it is a subordinate conjunction.

2. He knew where I was going. Parse *where*.
3. He was rich but honest. Parse *but*. Show that the sentence is an abridged compound sentence.
4. Parse the conjunction in the following: *He trembled as if he were frightened*.
5. What kind of relation is expressed by *except* in the following ? *We shall perish except we reform*.

INTERJECTIONS.

464. In Part I it was shown that the *interjection* is not a part of speech for the reason that it does not express an idea that is or may be an element in a thought. (See page 57.)

465. An *interjection* is the sign of strong feeling. It should not be mistaken for an *exclamatory sentence*.

The following are some of the interjections: Hurrah ! alas ! fie ! whew ! eh ! halloo ! ahoy ! pshaw ! O ! and oh !

"The word *oh* is used," says Goold Brown, "to denote sorrow, pain, or surprise; as a sign of wishing, earnestness, or direct address it is written *O*."

Some exclamatory sentences which are often called interjections are: Look! hark! behold! farewell! woe's the day! away! good-bye! (*God be with you.*)

GRAMMATICAL AND THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

466. **Thought analysis** is the *separation of each thought* into its principal and subordinate elements, and the statement of the relations of the thoughts to one another in the discourse.

467. **Grammatical analysis** is the *separation of a sentence* into its elements, and a statement of the use of each element in expressing the thought.

EXERCISES.

468. State the use of each part of speech in the following sentences:

(From Ben Jonson's description of Truth.)

Upon her head she wears a crown of stars,
Through which her orient hair waves to the waist,
By which believing mortals hold her fast,
And in whose golden cords are carried, even
Till with her breath she blows them up to heaven.
She wears a robe enriched with eagles' eyes,
To signify her sight in mysteries.
Upon each shoulder sits a milk-white dove,
And at her feet two witty serpents move:
Her spacious arms do reach from East to West,
And you can see her heart shine through her breast.
Her right hand holds a sun with burning rays,

Her left a golden bunch of golden keys,
 With which heaven's gate she locketh and displays.
 A crystal mirror hangeth at her breast
 By which men's consciences are searched and drest.
 Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just.
 God made the country, and man made the town.

There is a tide in the affairs of men,
 Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune.

No man can learn what he has not preparation for learning, however near to his eyes is the object. Our eyes are holden that we cannot see things that stare us in the face, until the hour arrives when the mind is ripened; then we behold them, and the time when we saw them not is like a dream.

Be noble! And the nobleness that lies
 In other men, sleeping, but never dead,
 Will rise in majesty to meet thine own;
 Then wilt thou see it gleam in many eyes,
 Then will pure life around thy path be shed,
 And thou wilt never more be sad and lone.

STUDY IN THOUGHT ANALYSIS.

469. I thought the sparrow's note from heaven,

Singing at dawn in the alder bough;

I brought him home in his nest at even.

He sings the song, but it pleases not now,

For I did not bring home the river and sky;

He sang to the ear—they sang to the eye.

Describe the picture you form in reading this stanza.

Why was not the sparrow's song so pleasing in the home as on the alder bough?

What is the office of *singing* in the sentence? *On the alder bough?* *home?* *song?* Of the fifth line? Has *note*

two uses? Does *sang* mean the same thing in both sentences in the last line? Write out an analysis that merely states the uses of phrases and clauses in expressing the thought. (Omit the relations of the separate words.)

470. Different uses of the same word. Make sentences illustrating two or more uses of the following words:

A, as adj.—prep.	Enough, as adj.—adv.—noun.
About, as adv.—prep.	Except, as prep.—conj.
Above, as adv.—prep.	For, as prep.—conj.—expletive.
After, as adv.—prep.	Since, as adv.—prep.—conj.
All, as adj.—adv.—noun.	So, as adv.—conj.—interjection.
As, as conj.—adv.—rel. pro.	That, as adj.—rel. pro.—conj.
Before, as adv.—prep.	Till, as prep.—conj.
Below, as adv.—prep.	Too, as adv.—conj.
Besides, as adv.—prep.	What, as interrog. pro.—rel.
Both, as adj.—conj.	pro.—interrogative adj.—
But, as adv.—conj.—prep.	interjection—adverb
By, as adv.—prep.	

What are the different uses of the same word in the following?

Enough was done, but they were not enough pleased with it to give them enough confidence in his ability to fill the place.

That man that spoke did not admit that he said that that was a noun.

So! You think to act so as to win applause even though your purpose is so base!

I was standing by when the fugitive ran to the woods by way of the lane.

For one to plead for him in such a case would be wrong, for he is not standing for the right thing.

I have not seen him since you mentioned the matter, nor has he been here since that time, nor have his friends heard of him since.

CHAPTER XVII.

DEFINITIONS.

471. The following definitions may be formulated from the teachings of this book:

Grammar is the science of the sentence.

A Sentence is the complete expression of a thought in words.

A thought, or **judgment**, is formed by asserting some attribute of an object-idea.

Parts of Speech are the different groups of **words** that express the different classes of **ideas** used in forming thoughts.

A Noun is the name of that about which something is or may be predicated.

A Pronoun is a word that denotes an object-idea without naming it.

A Verb is a word that predicates something of the subject.

An Adjective is a word that expresses some attribute of an object.

An Adverb is a word that expresses some attribute of an attribute.

A Preposition is a word used to show the relation of its object to some other word whose meaning the phrase modifies.

A Conjunction is a word

(1) That connects the members of a compound sentence,

(2) Words and phrases of equal rank,

(3) Clauses to the elements they modify.

An Interjection is a word that expresses strong feeling, but does not denote an *idea*, and is not, therefore, an element of a sentence.

A Participle is a word used as an adjective and performing some of the functions of an attributive verb.

A Gerund is a noun which has the form of the present participle, and performs some of the functions of an attributive verb.

The Infinitive is the root-form of the verb but performs the office of some other part of speech in the sentence.

To is generally prefixed to the infinitive as its sign.

A Simple Sentence has but one subject and one predicate; but both the subject and the predicate, or either of them, may be compound.

A Compound Sentence consists of members of the same rank, each of which is a simple or a complex sentence.

A Complex Sentence is one that contains a clause used as a part of speech.

A Phrase is a group of words, connected in meaning, that fills the office of a part of speech in the sentence, and contains neither a subject nor a predicate.

A Clause is a group of words having a subject and predicate which has the use of a part of speech in the sentence.

An Abstract Noun is the name of an attribute considered apart from that to which it belongs, and as an object of which something may be predicated.

A Concrete Noun is the name of an object with all of its attributes.

A Collective Noun is the name of a group of objects considered together as a whole.

Inflection is a change in the form of a word to show a change in its meaning.

Case is the *form* or *use* of a noun or pronoun by which its relation to other words is shown.

Analysis of a Sentence is the naming of all its elements and stating the use of each in expressing the thought.

An Attributive Verb expresses both the predicate attribute and the assertion.

The Pure Verb expresses the assertion only.

Mood is an inflection of the verb to show the manner of the assertion.

Tense is that inflection of the verb which denotes the time of the predicate-attribute.

Voice shows the direction of the action expressed by the verb as to or from the subject.

A Declarative Sentence is one in which something is simply stated, or asserted, of the subject. It is the expression of the simplest way of thinking.

The Interrogative Sentence asks for some element of the thought.

The Imperative Sentence expresses a command or an entreaty.

An Exclamatory Sentence expresses a thought accompanied by strong emotion.

It may be declarative, interrogative or imperative in form.

A Represented Thought is one that is used as a subordinate element in another thought.

Auxiliaries are verbs that are used with the principal parts of other verbs to form verb-phrases.

Co-ordinate Elements are of equal rank in the sentence; which means that no one of these elements is used to modify the meaning of another co-ordinate element.

Subordinate Elements are those that are used to modify the meaning of other elements.

Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.

Agreement, or Concord, requires that the elements of the sentence have such *form* as to show their relations to one another.

Arrangement requires that the elements have such *position* in the sentence as will best show their relations to one another.

The Construction of a word, phrase, or clause is its grammatical relation to other elements in the sentence.

A Definition is such a description of a thing as distinguishes it from everything else by briefly telling what it is.

CHAPTER XVIII.

PECULIAR USES OF WORDS.

472. The following are some of the words and phrases in our language that have peculiar uses in the sentence. To them the general rules of syntax do not always apply. They are called *idioms*.

THERE.

473. The usual meaning of *there* classes it among the adverbs of place. It often fills the office of other parts of speech, especially of the adjective; as, "The house is there." (In this sentence *there* is a predicate-attribute expressing the place or location of the house.)

But in the sentence, *There is no courage but in innocence*, *there* does not express any idea contained in the thought. *No courage is (exists) but in innocence*, expresses the full meaning. The ease and beauty of expression is, however, enhanced by introducing the sentence with *there*.

When so used it has no grammatical relation to the other words and is usually considered an **expletive** (see dictionary) used to introduce the sentence.

Examples:

There is a pleasure in the pathless woods.

There are more things in Heaven and earth, Horatio,
Than are dreamed of in your philosophy.

There is a time for memory and for tears.

Breathes there a man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said
This is my own, my native land?

IT.

474. Usually the antecedent of *it* is definitely known. In some cases, however, it seems to refer to something indefinite; as, " *It* snows, cries the school-boy, hurrah!"

In such sentences it denotes something in the thought so indefinite that it has received no name.

This use of *it* must not be mistaken for its use in the following sentence:

It is human to think well; it is divine to act well.

Here the real subject in each clause is the infinitive, which is in apposition with *it*.

In the sentence,

" Then trip it as you go
On the light fantastic toe,"

it is a mere expletive. It expresses no idea that is in the thought.

Examples:

The day is cold and dark and dreary,
It rains and the wind is never weary.

It easeth some, though none it ever cured,
To think their sorrows others have endured.

When it rains, let it rain.

It never rains but it pours.

LIKE AND AS.

Good usage does not sanction the use of *like* as a conjunction. No dictionary defines it as a conjunction.

The sentence, " You should do *like* you are bid," is not considered elegant English. It should be, " You should do *as* you are bid."

NOTE.—This word, *like*, is an interesting example of the gradual enlargement of the use of a word in our language. It was originally an *adjective*: as, "The metal is like unto silver." When used to denote similarity of manner, it is clearly an *adverb*; as, "He talked *like* an angel." But the dropping out of the preposition has added its function to the word *like*, which now fills the office of the *adjective* and the *preposition*, or of the *adverb* and the *preposition*. The use of *like* as a conjunction is apparently growing in some localities; as, "Do *like* I do." Whether it will come to prevail remains to be seen. There does not seem to be any convincing reason for giving *like* the office of a *preposition* and denying it the office of a *conjunction*. But present usage, as determined by the practice of most careful writers, does this. *Words* are not as exclusive as are *ideas*. There are five distinct classes of ideas, but the same word may be used to express ideas of two or three classes if good usage shall so decide.

WHAT.

476. *What* performs the office of two words, one antecedent and the other relative. It is probably a contraction of *who that*. But the word has many other uses in expressing thought.

Express thoughts using *what* (1) as an *adjective*; (2) as an *interrogative*; (3) as a *noun*.

In the sentence, "*What* with the intense cold of the winter, the broiling heat of summer, and the sudden changes of weather in other seasons, our mercurial visitor was in a constant state of exasperation," *what* has the use of an *adverb* having the meaning of *partly*. But this is a use not sanctioned by all writers.

AN.

477. *An* is sometimes a conjunction signifying *if*; as, "*An* it were to do again I would write again." "*An* it be a long part I cannot remember it."

In the Bible *an* is used sometimes in a peculiar way; as, "And his disciples were *an* hungered." This is probably a mistaken form for *enhungered*, in which *en* is a prefix.

In neither of these cases does it have the meaning of the article, *an*.

A is sometimes a preposition; as, "He was let out *a* nights," "He that died *a* Wednesday."

When used as a preposition *a* is usually a prefix; as, "*a*board, *a*kin, *a*loft," in which it has become incorporated in the word.

PECULIAR USE OF SOME VERBS.

478. Some verbs of rest and some of motion are used in the sense of the verb *be*.

Examples:

The man lay sick of a fever (was sick).

The house stands on the hill.

Hah! Sits the wind there!

A forest stood on the shore of the lake.

The prisoner sat dumb during the trial.

He did not go unrewarded.

She walks a queen (appears).

He smiles content with his achievement.

Words so used are sometimes called Copulative Verbs. But they have some attributive meaning and belong to the class of attributive verbs. Like pure verbs they require predicate nominatives to complete the predicate.

Select the words and phrases in the following sentences that are used in a peculiar way. In what does the peculiarity consist?

While stands the Colosseum, Rome shall stand. (Stand used for exist.)

The sun is set.

The melancholy days are come, the saddest of the year.
(Are used for have.)

Would I were a boy again. (Would for I wish.)

Tedious waste of time, to sit and hear

So many hollow compliments and lies.

(Subject used without a verb.)

Morn, late rising o'er the drooping world,
Lifts her pale eye, enjoyous.

Hope springs *eternal* in the human breast. (A word having double use of adverb and adjective.)

Until quite recently he was *believed* innocent.

They were never *heard of* after this. (*Heard of* is a verb phrase.)

Do not allow *yourself* to be imposed *upon*. (Subject of passive infinitive is also object of preposition.)

PECULIAR USE OF PHRASES.

479. *By and by, at all events, ever and anon, here and there, to be sure, upon the whole, by the way, so to speak, at length, of course,* and many other phrases are idiomatic expressions in common use. They perform the offices of parts of speech.

Point out the peculiar uses of words and phrases in the following:

"Angels sit down with their harps and play at each other, I suppose," said Number Seven; "must have an atmosphere up there if they have harps, or they would never get any music. Wonder if angels breathe like mortals. If they do they must have lungs and air passages, of course."

I wind about, and in and out,
With here a blossom sailing,
And here and there a lusty trout,
And here and there a grayling.

At first she flutters, but at length she springs
To smooth her flight, and shoots upon her wings.

[This chapter calls attention to a very few of those grammatical irregularities that are called *idioms*. It is not profitable to undertake to resolve them into separate parts of speech and give a construction to each word. It is often better to consider them as phrases and give these the construction of the parts of speech which they represent. The pupils should be encouraged to discover other idioms in their conversation and reading.]

CHAPTER XIX.

DERIVATION.

HOW WORDS HAVE GROWN.

480. The earliest inhabitants of England of whom we have any knowledge were Britons. They spoke the Celtic language, which is now known as the Welsh. The ancient Romans conquered this people, held the country for 350 years, and then withdrew. The Angles and Saxons afterward invaded the island, drove the Britons from their homes into the mountainous country of Wales, and made England their permanent abode. Most English words used in domestic life are of Anglo-Saxon origin.

Years afterward the Danes came into the country in large numbers, and were victorious in many wars, finally conquering the Anglo-Saxons at the battle of Hastings, where Harold, the Saxon king, was killed. After that both peoples lived peaceably together. The Anglo-Saxon language was adopted by the Danes, a few of their own words being retained. Afterward (it was nearly eight hundred years ago) the Normans under William the Conqueror came over from Normandy (France) and established their government in England, compelling the Anglo-Saxons and Danes to obey their laws. The language they used was the Norman-French. For years the Norman rulers and the Saxons were two distinct peoples, who spoke different languages and had different social customs. In time, however, the Saxons and the Normans became one nation and the two languages coalesced forming the English, so named from the Angles. As knowl-

edge increased, the Latin and Greek languages came to be studied in the schools, and scholars wrote most of their books in the Latin tongue. So it happened that the English received contributions from several different languages, and as it grew the words little by little lost their inflections, and English became a "grammarless tongue" in this regard.

481. Our language has grown by compounding two or more words into one. The original word to which the others have been joined is called the *root*. The other words are joined to this either as *suffixes* or *prefixes*.

For example: Suppose the original word for *do* or *act* were *ag*. Then by adding *ent* we have *agent*, a doer or actor. Or suppose the root-word for *hear* were *aud*; by adding *ible*, which means able, we have *audible* (able to be heard). By prefixing *in*, which means *not*, to this we have *inaudible*.

482. There are at least three distinct ways of making new words from old ones:

1. By adding one to the other as a suffix; as, *love-like*, which has now become *love-ly*.
2. By adding one to the other as a prefix; as, *un*, which means *not*, in *un-love-ly*.
3. By internal changes; as, *gold* changed to *gild*.

483. These different words grew into one by degrees, and in a way similar to the following: The first meal in the day was originally called *breaking the fast* (of the night); then, *breaking fast*; then *break fast*; then, brought still closer by the hyphen, was *break-fast*, and finally *breakfast*, written as one word.

In a similar way all derivative words have been formed by converting phrases into a single word.

In studying the derivation of words one learns the history of their growth, in which (1) their original meaning is discovered, and (2) the successive changes in that meaning. No study is more important than this to the student who

wishes to enlarge his stock of words and to use language with accuracy and precision.

484. The following is a good order to pursue in studying words:

1. Find the root-meaning of the word.
2. Point out the prefixes and suffixes and state what modifications they make of the root-meaning.*
3. Form a thought that requires the word to express it.
4. Make a list of all the words you can discover that are formed from the same root.
5. Make a list of words formed by the use of the same prefix or suffix.

Example: The prefix *ad* means *to* or *at*; as, *ad-join*, *accretion*, *af-firm*, *ag-gregate*, *al-lude*, *am-muni-tion*, *an-nul*, *ap-plaud*, *ar-rogate*, *as-sist*, *at-tract*.

(Notice that the prefix, *ad*, changes its sound and form to harmonize with the first sound in the root.)

PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

485. Some prefixes in most common use are:

a, ab	= from.	in	= in, on, etc.
ad	= to.	inter	= between.
bene	= well.	of	= against.
circum	= around.	per	= through.
con	= with.	post	= after.
de	= down.	pre	= before.
dis	= apart.	sub	= under.
ex	= out of.	trans	= across.

*The student will notice that, like modifying elements in the sentence, and like inflection, the forming of composite words is a way of modifying the meaning of the root-word.

486. The following are some of the most common suffixes:

- able (ible, ble), *may or can be*;—*pass-able*.
- acity—*state of being*;—*viv-acity*.
- ate—to *make, to give, to take*;—*animate*.
- ile—*relating to*;—*serv-ile, mob-ile*.
- ly—*like*;—*beast-ly*.
- ous—*full of*;—*anxi-ous, bili-ous*.
- ple—*fold*;—*multi-ple*.
- ure—*state or act of*;—*depart-ure, stat-ure*.
- let—*little*;—*stream-let*.

SOME ROOT-Words.

487. Make lists of words from each of the following roots:

- anim, which means *mind, soul, spirit*; as, *animate*.
- aper—*open*; as, *aper-ture*.
- art—*skill, art, method*; as, *art-ist*.
- bat—*to fight, to beat*; as, *com-bat, bat-ting*.
- capt (cept)—*to take, seize, hold*; as, *cap-able*.
- coron—*crown*; as, *coro-ner* (officer of the crown).
- corpus—*body*; as, *corpor-ation*.
- dit (do)—*to give*; as, *e-dit, ad-dit-ion*.
- dorm—*to sleep*; as, *dorm-itory*.
- fa—*to speak*; as, *fa-ble, pre-fa-(ce)*.
- fact (fic, fac)—*to make*; as, *fac-tor, satis-fac-tion*.
- hospit—*a guest*; as, *hospit-al*.
- junct—*to join*; as, *ad-junct*.
- loqu—*to speak*; as, *ob-loqu-y*.
- mar (mer)—*the sea*; as, *mar-i-ne*.
- mir—*to wonder*; as, *mir-acle*.
- mort—*death*; as, *im-mort-al*.
- par (pire, peer)—*equal*; as, *um-pire, peer-age*.
- port—*to carry*; as, *re-port, port-able*.
- riv (rip)—*stream*; as, *riv-er, ar-riv(e), rip-arian*.
- rupt—*to break*; as, *ab-rupt, rupt-ure*.

sat—*enough*; as, *sat-is-fy*, *sat-urate*.

sequ—to follow; as, *con-sequ-ence*.

[Find root-words in the dictionary and trace them through other words as here suggested. This work should be pursued persistently and during the entire grammar school course.]

NOTE.—No attempt is made here to give sufficient material for making students expert in analyzing words. When they have learned a method of doing this, they should employ it in the study of the new words that come in their work and experience. They must learn to seek their information from the dictionary and not from partial lists of root-words and prefixes and suffixes in the text-book in grammar. The mastery of the meaning and composition of words is the work of years. The most that the school can do is to awaken an interest in studying each new word in its derivation and history, and so to come by its exact meaning.

WORDS FOR STUDY.

488. ac-cele-ate; *celer* = swift.

ab-brev-iation; *brev* = short.

en-chant-ment; *cant* = sing.

sur-cing-le; *cing* = bind.

cap-able; *capt* = seize or hold.

ac-cur-ate; *cur* = care.

dan-de-lion; *dan* or *dent* = tooth.

certi-fy; *fac* or *fy* = to make.

re-fract-ion; *frang* or *fract* = to break.

con-gest-ion; *gest* = to carry or bring.

de-gener-ate; *gener* = race or family.

groc-er; *gross* = large.

man-acle; *man* = hand.

remnant, re-man-ent; *man* or *main* = to stay or remain.

mort-gage; *mort* = death.

patrician; *pater* = father.

pen-itent; *pen* = punishment.

pict-ure; *pict* = paint.

plumb-er; *plumb* = lead.

punct-u-al; *punct* = to prick or point.

rid-iculous; *rid* or *ris* = laugh or mock.

con-stell-ation; *stell* = a star.

ab-und-ance; *und* = rising in waves.

in-val-id; *val* = to be strong or true.

pre-vent-ion; *ven* = to come.

PART III.

SYNTAX.

THE IDEAL SENTENCE.

It should be powerful in its substantives, choice and discreet in its adjectives, nicely correct in its verbs; not a word that could be added, nor one which the most fastidious would venture to suppress; in order lucid, in sequence logical, in method perspicuous, and yet with a pleasant and inviting intricacy which disappears as you advance in the sentence; the language, throughout, not quaint, not obsolete, not common, and not new; its several clauses justly proportioned and carefully balanced, so that it moves like a well-disciplined army organized for conquest; the rhythm, not that of music, but of a higher and more fantastic melodiousness, submitting to no rule, incapable of being taught, the substance and the form alike disclosing a happy union of the soul of the author to the subject of his thought, having, therefore, individuality without personal predominance; and withal there must be a sense of felicity about it, declaring it to be the product of a happy moment, so that you feel that it will not happen again to that man who writes the sentence, nor to any other of the sons of men, to say the like thing so choicely, tersely, mellifluously, and completely.

—*Sir Arthur Helps in "Realmah," p. 141.*

CHAPTER XX.

SYNTAX.

489. We learned in Part II something of the different uses of words in expressing thoughts, and of the changes in their forms to denote a modification of their meaning.

We are now to discover some of the rules by which we join words in sentences so that the elements shall *agree* with one another, and each shall occupy its *proper place*.

Putting together words in a sentence is called **syntax**. (See derivation in the dictionary.)

Syntax treats of the agreement and arrangement of words in the construction of sentences.

490. The Different Sentence-Elements. It has been shown that the different elements which a sentence may have are:

1. Subject,
2. Copula,
3. Predicate { attributive,
 substantive,
4. Objective modifiers,
5. Objective complements,
6. Adjective modifiers,
7. Adverbial modifiers,
8. Connectives,
9. Independent elements.

491. Different Forms of the Elements. In form these elements are:

1. Single words,
2. Phrases,
3. Clauses.

492. Agreement and Arrangement.

1. Words may *agree* in person, gender, number, case, mood, or tense.

2. By *arrangement* is meant the *order* of the elements in the sentence.

AGREEMENT OF SENTENCE ELEMENTS.

In the sentences, *I am*, *you are*, *he is*, the subjects have different persons and the form of the verb is changed in each case to correspond. In, *we are*, *you are*, *they are*, the plural form of the verb is used to agree with the number of the subject. The *form* of the verb does not always change when the person and number change, but the *meaning* of the verb always changes to correspond with the number and person of the subject. It follows, therefore, that the verb always agrees with its subject in person and number. This agreement is determined by the thought and it is sometimes indicated by the form.

493. RULE 1.—A verb agrees with its subject in number and person; as, *I write*, *he writes*, *they write*.

The subject may be made plural by joining two or more singular subjects into one; as, *Mars and Venus are the nearest planets*.

But when there is only one thought-subject having different names the verb is singular; as, *The great sculptor, painter, and architect was also a poet and an engineer*.

494. RULE 2.—The tense-forms and infinitives in subordinate elements should indicate time that shall correspond with the time denoted by the sentence.

Correct the following violations of this rule:

I expected to have met him.

He was gone this whole year.

Unless you are careful you might make a mistake.
He would have been pleased to have met you.

Exception: It is evident that when the subordinate element states something that is universally true, or is an existing fact, the time indicated must be present; as, "He believed that God is just."

Justify the tense-forms in the following:

He declared that the earth is round.
It was proclaimed long ago that honesty is the best policy.

495. RULE 3.—The object of a preposition or of a transitive verb is in the objective case.

It is only in some of the pronouns that there is a change of form for the objective case. The violations of this rule occur in the use of these. Point out the errors in the following:

Thou, O sinful, rebellious man, I condemn.
Who did you see?
The agent gave John and I tickets to the show.
They who honor me I will honor.
I knew who he wanted.
Who do you think I met yesterday?
I know not who to speak to.
To send me away, I who am so dependent, is cruel.
He has given money to every one; no one knows who.

496. RULE 4.—The subject of an infinitive in an abridged clause is in the objective case.

In the sentence, *I commanded him to go*, *him* and *to go* may each be regarded as objects of the command, or they may be considered as an abridged clause equivalent to *that he should go*.

Correct the errors in the following:

Let he who knows tell that.

I proved it to be he who the general referred to.
(*He* must be in same case as *it*.)

Let you and I decide the matter for ourselves.

Father took Sister and I to visit the old homestead.

497. RULE 5.—Never use the past participle for the past tense, nor the past tense for the past participle.

Correct the errors in the following:

I seen him when he done it.

I have saw it often.

Haven't you went yet?

He has took my book from my desk since I come.

Were the birds drove away?

He might have went if he had knowed it.

Fill the following blanks with personal pronouns:

It was ____.

I suppose that man to be ____.

The man was not ____.

We believed the new comers to be ____.

498. RULE 6.—The objective-complement of a verb agrees in case with the object of the verb; as, "They elected him *governor*." *Governor* is in the same case as *him*.

Correct the errors in the following:

Who did you think him to be?

I thought the girl to be she whom I was seeking.

I thought that man he whom I sent for.

499. RULE 7.—A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in person, gender, and number.

When there are several antecedents considered collectively the pronoun must be plural. If they are taken distributively, the pronoun is singular.

The same is true of the agreement of a verb with several nominatives. When the subjects or antecedents differ in person, the verb or pronoun agrees with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third.

Examples :

Each man, woman, and child *has* a duty to perform.

No man nor set of men is authorized to impose such a law.

John and James are faithful to their studies.

Each of the four neighbors had his dwelling burned.

My brother and I and two cousins are pursuing our studies at the same school.

(Why is *our* used instead of *their*.)

No man or woman should incur censure for being careful of his reputation.

(If genders differ the masculine is preferred to the feminine.)

500. RULE 8.—The substantive predicate is always in the same case as the subject. (By a substantive is meant either a noun or pronoun or any sentence element used as such.)

Correct the following :

It is him.

I thought it to be he.

It was not her.

I knew it to be they.

The criminals were said to be them.

501. RULE 9.—When a verb has two or more subjects, or a pronoun has two or more antecedents, connected by *or* or *nor*, it agrees with the nearest.

If one subject or antecedent is of leading importance, the verb or pronoun will agree with that, whatever its position; as, “They as well as I *are* to be regarded.”

502. RULE 10.—If the subject or antecedent is a collective noun and the thought regards the separate individuals rather than the group as a whole, the verb or pronoun is plural; as, “The people *were* from different towns.”

In the sentence, “Many a hero lays down *his* life, but *their* names shall be honored,” the article *a* compels the use of the singular pronoun *his* in the first sentence, but the idea in the adjective *many* controls the number of the pronoun in the second.

Point out faults in agreement in the following:

I knew it was him.

John or I is to go.

He or they is in fault.

The company were large.

The audience was gratified.

John and I was away.

Either John or I were away.

The jury was agreed.

The public is invited.

Each hour and moment are to be improved.

503. RULE 11.—The parts of a sentence should be alike in form if they express like relations in the thought.

How is this rule violated in the following?

He prayeth best who loves best.

He always has and always will be just.

He is the man that ought to be chosen who had not offered himself.

EXERCISE.

What rules of agreement are violated in the following?

I have been sick yesterday.

I expected to have returned last week.

They proposed to have visited Rome the following year.

After I visited Europe I return to America.

Remember that you might be disappointed in your plans.

I will take care that he attends to it.

He spoke of Nero, who is a name for all that is cruel.

Everybody is bound to do all the good they can.

Each of the four neighbors had their dwellings burned.

If any one has been omitted let them rise.

Marklan, who, with Jorton and Thirlby, Johnson called three contemporaries of great eminence.

Who should I meet the other day but my old friend.

There was sold in the market to-day sixty head of cattle.

The council were divided in opinion.

The regiment was tall.

The assembly was from different communities.

He or they is to be promoted.

Was I to tell the whole truth I should not be believed.

ARRANGEMENT OF SENTENCE ELEMENTS.

504. The natural or logical order of arrangement of the principal elements of the English sentence is:

1. Subject,
2. Copula,
3. Predicate.

This order in the sentence follows the natural order of forming a thought, which is, first, a subject of thought, and second, that which is predicated of the subject. Most declarative sentences are arranged in this order.

It is the order that gives the clearest and simplest expression of thought; as, *To know ourselves is the most valuable of all knowledge.*

There are many exceptions to this rule.

1. In the interrogative and imperative sentences this order is not observed. We have learned that the words that represent the unknown element of the thought, in questions, are apt to come first in the sentence; as, "When will the flowers come?"

2. Imperatives generally begin with the word expressing the command, which is the verb; as, "Stay not on the order of your going, but go at once."

3. When we desire to give special emphasis to an idea it is often placed at the beginning of the sentence; as, "Beautiful are all forms of nature." "Come he would repeatedly." "Silver and gold have I none."

4. The words *there* and *it* are often used to relieve our aversion to a disregard of the logical order; as, "There came thousands of gulls flying about the ship."

5. In poetry the logical order is often disregarded; as, "Large was his bounty, and his soul sincere."

505. Modifying elements should be placed as near to the words they modify as other requirements will permit.

NOTE.—Let it be remembered that emphasis is given to an idea by placing the word that expresses it as early as possible in the sentence, or in the element of the sentence to which it belongs. Precedence in the sentence emphasizes ideas, as precedence in society emphasizes persons.

1. Word-modifiers generally precede the words they modify, while clause and phrase modifiers follow them.

2. If several objects are related to an action in different orders of dependence, the words expressing them follow one another in the same order; as, "He attached himself (direct object) to the *army* (indirect object) solely for the *good* of his country (object of result)."

But here also the order may be changed for emphasis or euphony; as, "*To his work he more and more exclusively devoted himself.*"

506. Point out the faults of arrangement in the following:

He bought a black pair of kid gloves and a gracefully fitting pair of gaiters.

The homes of the wealthy were decorated not more beautifully.

It is impossible continually to be at work.

You have read the book certainly but not with attention.

Benevolence is on whatever side we may contemplate the subject a god-like virtue.

I like to hear you speak very much.

EXERCISE.

What rules of arrangement are violated in the following?

These rumors are mere rural libelous gossip.

An old, venerable, tall man broke in upon the circle just then.

You may find which way the wind blows most easily by throwing up soap bubbles.

Not only he found her employed, but happy also.

Praise, like diamonds, owes to its scarcity only its value.

It was an unpardonable breach of trust and a gross disregard of duty to say the least.

A similar struggle against the feudal despots to that of other countries.

CHAPTER XXI.

PUNCTUATION.

We use spoken and written words to express our ideas, and we arrange them in sentences to express our thoughts. In oral discourse we make use of inflections of the voice, of pauses, of emphasis, of gestures, and of louder or softer tones, to assist in making clearer the meaning we convey by words. In written discourse we use **marks of punctuation** for this purpose.

Each of the following sentences can have two meanings. Punctuate them so that each will have but one:

In any case he was not pretending a thing which he despised.

His appointment to office according to well-recognized precedent requires that he support the president.

What is the meaning of the following?

Wherever the envoys went they were received with favor as they had the means to buy drink for the natives they could easily obtain their assistance.

Punctuate the sentence so that it will express the meaning you discover.

There are but few rules of *punctuation* that are universally observed, as there are but few rules of *style* in expressing one's thoughts. The great masters of English composition punctuate their sentences differently in some

minor particulars. But there are some general rules observed by all, and it is these that everyone ought to know.

The best way to learn the rules of punctuation is:

1. By much reading of good literature, and by giving attention, while reading, to the marks used by the authors.
2. By the study of the rules by which these writers are governed in punctuating their discourse.

MARKS OF PUNCTUATION.

There are two classes of punctuation marks :

1. Those that indicate different degrees of **separation** in the parts of the thought.
2. Those that indicate some peculiarity in the **expression** of the thought.

I.

The marks of **separation** are :

1. **The Period** [.] .
2. **The Colon** [:].
3. **The Semicolon** [;].
4. **The Comma** [,].

RULES.

1. **The Period** closes a *declarative* or an *imperative sentence*, and it should be placed after every *abbreviation*.

[Young writers are unable to use the period correctly not because of a want of knowledge of the rules for closing the sentence, but because they do not perceive when the sentence is complete. The following device secures excellent training in such perception: Let the members of the class copy, at the board or upon paper, successive paragraphs of a continuous discourse, omitting all capitals and punctuation. When this is done, let them exchange papers or

change places at the board, and determine from the thought alone where the sentences close, supplying the proper marks and capital letters.]

2. **The Colon** has but one office that is universally recognized as peculiar to it by modern prose-writers. This office is illustrated in the following:

In 1597 Bacon wrote thus: Crafty men contemn studies; simple men admire them; and wise men use them.

Johnson put the case thus: "The historian tells what is false or what is true. In the former case he is no historian; in the latter, he has no opportunity for displaying his abilities."

Surely he will not deceive us. No: he will not.

Richard Roe & Co.,

Gentlemen:

The tenses of the verb in the indicative mood are six: present, past, future, present-perfect, past-perfect, and future-perfect.

The Colon is used to indicate that something is to follow. Its uses may be limited to the following cases:

(1) *The colon* is used when the parts so separated are composed of members one or both of which are separated by the semicolon.

Example: In neither case, therefore, was the independence of England threatened; in neither case was her honor compromised: in both cases her liberties were preserved.

(2) *The colon* is used before a *formal quotation* and before a *summary*.

Examples: Pope makes this striking remark: "A little learning is a dangerous thing."

Is there a demand for the colon in the following? Why? Some things we can do and others we cannot do we can walk but we cannot fly.

* **NOTE.**—In both of the above cases the colon shows the reader that another member of the thought is to follow.

SEMICOLON.

3. **The Semicolon** is used for three distinct purposes:

(1) *Separate* and *distinct* phrases, clauses, and sentences are often united in a single sentence to express the complex whole of thought in the writer's mind. The **semicolon** placed after each of these shows to the reader that there is another part of the sentence to follow having a similar office; as,

His answer was brief; his manner, courteous.

It is a question of pure curiosity; it never can be decided; the discussion ought to be conducted without personal abuse.

The cannon roared; the flags fluttered; the band played; the people shouted themselves hoarse.

He was courteous, not cringing, to superiors; affable, not familiar, to equals; and kind, but not condescending, to inferiors.

(2) When there is a series of phrase or clause elements depending upon what precedes or what follows, they are separated by the **semicolon**; as,

It is asserted of General Grant that his presence of mind never deserted him; that his natural modesty was never marred by the most brilliant success; that he was ever just and generous both to friend and foe; that he was the greatest soldier ever produced by the western world.

If we think of glory in the field; of wisdom in the cabinet; of the purest patriotism; of morals without stain; the august figure of Washington presents itself as the personification.

(3) **The semicolon** should be used before *as, to wit, namely, e. g., i. e., etc.*, when used to introduce examples, illustrations, or explanations of what has preceded; as,

The lecturer spoke of four stages of history; viz., the golden age, the silver age, the brazen age, and the iron age.

If one gives a liberal construction to the above three rules, he will not go far wrong in the use of the semicolon. Other specific rules are often given, but the above are universally observed by careful writers, while the others are not.

No very sharp line of discrimination can be drawn between the use of the semicolon and of the colon in some cases. When in doubt, it is customary to use the semicolon.

Supply colons and semicolons in the following :

And naught is friendship but a name
 A charm that lulls to sleep
 A shade that follows wealth or fame
 And leaves the wretch to weep.

The river Rhine it is well known
 Doth wash your city of Cologne
 But tell me nymphs what power divine
 Shall thenceforth wash the river Rhine.

I remember I remember
 The fir-trees dark and high
 I used to think their slender tops
 Were close against the sky.

THE COMMA.

4. **The Comma**, like all other marks of punctuation, should be used when it makes the meaning of a sentence clearer than it would otherwise be. It may be omitted whenever the omission would not obscure the thought.

When the elements of a sentence are distinct but express ideas that are closely related in the thought, the **comma** is used to separate them. The specific rules are as follows:

(1) The **comma** may be used to show an ellipsis; as, He came, saw, conquered.

(2) Elements when repeated, or in apposition, or in a series of three or more, are separated by a **comma**; as,

Insensible to fatigue, to pleasure, and to pain.

Discord, discord, is the ruin of this city !

(3) To show the definitive use of modifiers the comma is omitted; when the use is descriptive the comma is inserted ; as, The sun that lights this world is smaller than some other suns (definitive).

The sun, *which* shines in the heavens, sheds light upon all (descriptive).

(4) To separate elements grammatically independent, though closely connected in thought ; as, Come, gentle spring.

(5) To separate a *long* subject consisting of one or more phrases or clauses from the predicate ; as,

To be true to duty, as it is given us to see our duty, is the first commandment.

(6) To indicate a change of subject in parts of a compound sentence ; as,

Art is long, and time is fleeting.

(7) To rest the eye when the elements connected are long ; as,

The hound caught the scent after a long delay, and led us over the hill into a deep wood.

(8) To separate independent or parenthetical elements ; as,

There is, moreover, another reason.

Hail, Brutus !

The number of rules for the comma might be greatly multiplied, but the foregoing will indicate its principal uses in printed or written composition.

NOTE.—Punctuation is used effectively not only to indicate the thought but to give special emphasis to certain elements of it. Only the rules for making the meaning more definite are given in this chapter.

II.

Marks of expression include:

1. **Exclamation point** [!].
2. **Interrogation point** [?].
3. **Dash** [—].
4. **Quotation marks**, both double [“ ”] and single [' '].
5. **Parentheses**—().
6. **Brackets**—[].

(1) **The exclamation point** indicates that strong emotion is expressed by what precedes it. It may be used after any word, phrase, or sentence that expresses strong feeling.

It may take the place, therefore, of any one of the four marks of separation. For what mark is it used in the following sentences?

Fair spirit! rest thee now.
Ah me! that awful dream!
'Tis by its fruit a tree is known!
The test of truth is love!

NOTE.—To insert exclamation or interrogation marks as marks of sarcasm or reproach is in bad taste; as, How brilliant (!) was that remark! How very disinterested (?) he is!

(2) **The interrogation point** is used as the sign of a question.

(3) **The dash** denotes that the expression of the thought is abruptly broken off, or that there is an abrupt turn in the thought itself, or change in expression.

The dash does service, also, for other marks; especially for the parentheses and the semicolon.

Examples: She looked up—but rather at her lover than the king. “I once thought and prayed like thee—but now—” and he slowly walked away.

(4) **The double quotation marks** are used when the writer borrows the language of another in expressing his thought.

The single quotation marks are used to denote a quotation within a quotation.

(5) **The parentheses and brackets** are used to set off what is grammatically independent, but closely related to the thought as explanatory or in some way elucidating it. They also indicate the introduction of matter entirely foreign.

EXERCISE.

Punctuate the following :

Avoid anger it leads to hasty action

Cowards die many times the valiant never taste of death
but once

Cultivate courage it is a manly virtue

No he will not

Mr Burke spoke as follows As to the wealth which the colonies have drawn from the sea you had all that matter fully laid open at your bar

I awoke I arose at once

The cock is crowing the stream is flowing

The small birds twitter the lake doth glitter

The green fields sleep in the sun

The creation of a thousand forests is in one acorn and
Greece Rome Gaul Britain America lie folded already in the
first man

The lecturer spoke of four stages of history viz the
golden age the silver age the brazen age and the iron age

The sound of *e* before terminal *l* is suppressed in many
words as chattel drivel easel grovel hazel mussel weasel and
others

I will hearken what the Lord God will say concerning
me for he shall speak peace unto his people

James you may erase your work

That is the old old story

Break break break

At the foot of thy crags O sea

He was a brave pious and patriotic man

Rich and poor high and low good and bad admire the
deeds of a brave man

I will however do as you desire

The older son James inherited the estate

Harsh in manner he was prone to offend

The lad laughing merrily disappeared from sight

Defer not till to-morrow to be wise

To-morrow's sun to thee may never rise

Revolutions are not made they come

The earth our common mother is animated to give refuge
against a father's unkindness

Self-reverence self-knowledge self-control

These three alone lead life to sovereign power

How dull it is to pause to make an end

To rust unburnished not to shine in use

As though to breathe were life

Who is more happy when with heart content

Fatigued he sinks into some pleasant lair

Of wavy grass

APPENDIX.

I.

THE VERB.

The text-books on Grammar do not hold any common view concerning the nature of the verb. The definition of Goold Brown seems to be the standard with which most other definitions should be compared. He says: "A verb is a word that *signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon*." Now *existence, action, and the receiving of an action* belong to—are attributes of—the object of which they are affirmed. An action is quite as much the attribute of an object as is a quality. A quality is that which belongs to an object when viewed as *substance*; an action is that which belongs to an object when viewed as *cause*. The above definition, therefore, confuses the function of the adjective with the function of a verb. As we might expect, it does not define with any clearness. There are very many verbs that do not signify either *to be, or to act, or to be acted upon*. This Goold Brown himself admits, and excuses the imperfection of his definition by saying: "The greatest and most acute philologists confess that a faultless definition of this part of speech is difficult, if not impossible, to be formed." But he certainly ought to come nearer to a faultless definition of the verb than is one which identifies it with the adjective. His definition does not even suggest that office of the verb that clearly distinguishes it from every other part of speech; viz., its function of expressing the assertion. It is certain that there is in all thinking an act of the thinker by which he affirms or denies, more or less positively, a predicate of a subject. There is no one of the parts of speech that expresses this affirmation or denial unless it be the verb. If the verb does not do it, then the sentence has no word in it to express this most vital element in every thought.

As has been shown repeatedly in this book, the material of all thinking consists of five classes of ideas: 1. *Object ideas*; 2. Ideas of *attributes of objects*; 3. Ideas of *attributes of other attributes*; 4. Ideas of *relations between other ideas*; and 5. Ideas of *relations between thoughts*. These constitute the material which the thinker uses in making thoughts. He works them up into thoughts by affirming,

more or less positively, that some part of this material does or does not belong to, is or is not the same as, some other part of this material. And all thinking consists in this. Is it not evident, therefore, that a sentence the office of which is to express a thought must have some word in it to express this affirming act of the thinker who makes the thought? Is it not evident, also, that the part of speech called *the verb* does this? Whatever else the verb may be used to express, its distinctive and distinguishing office is to express the affirming, or judging, act of him who makes the thought.

II.

MOOD.

To think involves two things: 1. The material of thought; 2. The thinker who works this material up into thoughts. Thinking is the affirming or denying of relations between different parts of the material of thought. For example: The material may be the *sun* and its attribute, *bright*. The thinker constructs this into the thought, "The sun is bright." He *asserts* brightness of the sun. The word *is* represents this act of the thinker, while the other words represent the sun and its attribute—the material of thought. This is the typical form of the activity of the human mind—the *assertion* that *something is* or is not *another something*.

It is evident that the thinker may affirm predicates of subjects with varying degrees of certainty or doubt. *Mood* is the change in the simple assertive form of the verb to express these degrees of certainty or doubt. If the judgment is an unmodified assertion it is expressed by the *indicative mood*, which is, really, no mood at all, as mood is defined above. The moods are changes from this unmodified form of assertion.

If the judgment is a contingent one—that is, if it depends upon something not yet known or determined—it is expressed by the Potential mood of the verb. The judgment, "It *may rain* to-morrow," might be expressed by the Indicative with a copula modifier; as, "It *will possibly rain* to-morrow." But in, "Were it to rain to-morrow the meeting will be postponed," the contingency needs a mood form of the verb to express it. Now, whether we call this mood Potential or Subjunctive is not material. The meaning is the same, whatever be the name of the mood.

There is a peculiar modification of the judgment when the maker of it grounds it in his own will. He can express it fairly well in the indicative form, as, "You *shall leave*;" "He *shall go*;" but it is

better expressed by the simple root-verb; as, "Leave," or "Go." This is expressed by the Imperative mood.

Not only may the judgment be contingent or conditional or imperative, but it may also be grounded in necessity. This is another modification of the simply assertive judgment, expressed by the copula modifier "necessarily," when the Indicative is used; as, "The three angles of a triangle are *necessarily* equal to two right angles." But this is better expressed by the mood form, *must be*. In this book the definition of the Potential mood is enlarged to include the expression of this *necessity* in the mind of the maker of the judgment. But the difference in the thinking of *contingent* and *necessary* judgments is sufficiently great to justify another name for the mood that expresses the latter. The universal practice is, however, to class this mood-form with those of the Potential.

The Potential form evidently expresses the unmodified assertion, as well as the contingency of the judgment. In the sentence, "You *may go* when you please," the judgment is an unmodified assertion and the meaning is Indicative, but the form is Potential.

The only purpose of the writer of this note is to show to those who seek for the deeper reasons of things one ground for the inflection of mood in English grammar.

III.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

There is as little agreement among grammarians concerning the classification of nouns, as there is concerning the nature of the verb. Goold Brown divides them into two general classes,—*Proper* and *Common*—and defines these classes as follows:

1. "A *proper noun* is the name of a particular individual, or people, or group."
2. "A *common noun* is the name of a sort, kind, or class of beings or things."

In 1835 he published his Institutes of Grammar, and his Grammar of Grammars, published in 1851, has long been an acknowledged authority among English scholars.

Most of the grammars published since 1850 have substantially the same definitions of these two classes of nouns.

This definition of the common noun is merely a statement that a common noun is the name of a class of objects; for what is a "sort" or a "kind" but a class? The definition does not include a great many nouns that are in no sense names of classes, as we use

them in expressing thought; such as spirit, matter, mind, air, water, gold, heap, assembly, people, army, and the like.

If a more satisfactory basis of classification of nouns is to be discovered it must be looked for in the objects that they name. It is evident that the first objects of thought arose in the mind through the act of perception,—things seen, felt, heard, etc. These were seen as having some shape, or color, or other attribute which eventually resulted in such simple judgments as, *Grass is green*; *Sun is bright*; *The cat mews*; etc. In these judgments the objects of thought, *grass*, *sun*, and *cat*, are seen to be composed of elements or attributes. They are compounds, or concretes, and *green*, *bright*, and *mewing* are certain ones of these attributes thought apart and predicated of the objects. They are abstracts. The most primitive judgments, therefore, involve ideas that are concrete, or composite, and ideas that are abstract, or thought apart from the things to which they belong. It follows, therefore, that the first division of the material of thought which must be made in order that any judgment whatever can arise is into *concrete ideas* and *abstract ideas*.

Concrete ideas arise in the mind in different ways:

1. Objects of perception are concrete, and each one is a separate individual. The name of such individual by which it is set off from all other individuals is a *Proper noun*.

2. An individual object may be perceived as a whole, composed of many like individuals; as, a flock, a forest, a herd, an army. The name of such object is a *Collective noun*.

3. An individual object may be thought as substance without regard to any individual elements composing it; as, water, space, time, air, earth, gold, spirit, copper, coal, etc. Such names have been called *Mass nouns* and *Substance nouns*.

4. A composite object may be discerned not by perception so much as by a process of forming judgments. It is seen that birds fly, beetles fly, bats fly, etc. This collection of many individuals are all fliers, and each is a flier. This whole of individual objects, *flier*, receives its name from the common attribute. *Flier* is the name, not of a particular individual, nor of a collection, nor of an object viewed as mass or substance, but of a *class* of objects—of a composite, every part of which is an individual having the common attribute, *flying*. The names of these objects are *Class nouns*.

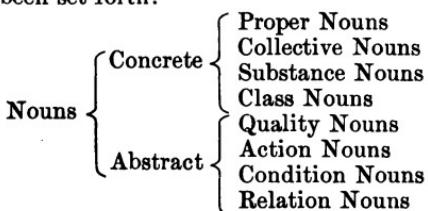
It has been shown how abstract ideas arise in forming predicates in primitive judgments. Abstracts were all originally attributes predicated of concrete subjects. There are two distinct kinds of attributes that can be predicated of such subjects. When the subject is viewed as *substance having qualities*, as, *The sun is bright*, it is *quality* that is predicated of the subject. But when the subject is thought

as cause, that which is predicated of it is an attribute of *action*. When these abstracts are made subjects of which something is predicated, they are expressed by *abstract nouns*. There are, therefore, abstract nouns of *quality* and abstract nouns of *action*. These attributes are regarded as internal properties of the subject, emanating, as it were, from it.

But when the thought is that "the man is in danger," we are not analyzing the subject and expressing its internal attributes, but the attribute, "in danger," is viewed as something external which does not belong to the subject as cause or as substance, but as related to time, or space, or to other objects in time or space. "In danger" shows how he is now. It is called an attribute of Condition. In the sentence, "The wall is the foundation of the house," the predicate is an abstract noun of Relation. It appears, therefore, that there may be—

1. Abstract nouns of Quality.
2. Abstract nouns of Action.
3. Abstract nouns of Condition.
4. Abstract nouns of Relation.

Nouns admit of the following classification upon the basis that has been set forth:



IV.

ATTRIBUTES.

"Attribute," as used in grammar, is a purely technical term. In thinking of objects we generally view them: 1. As causes producing effects; or, 2. As substance having attributes. They are known as causes by the actions they perform. They are known as substances by the qualities that belong to them. When we think that the *sun rules the day, and the moon and stars rule the night*, we think of the sun, the moon, and the stars as causes. When we speak of the *bright sun* and the *pale moon*, we regard them as substances having attributes of quality by which they are distinguished the one from the other. An object is characterized, there-

fore, both by what it *does* and by what it *is*. Both of these classes of characteristics are its attributes, by which it is known. It is evident, therefore, that things may be described by either naming their qualities or their actions. The words thus used are adjectives because they describe objects. Adjectives signify action, in our language, oftener than they signify quality. This is all evident enough, and the only justification for setting it forth here and elsewhere in this book with so much repetition, is the prevalent idea that only words that signify quality are adjectives, and that those which signify action are generally verbs. As has been repeatedly shown, verbs do not signify attributes of the objects about which we think, but denote the act of the thinker and the character of the judgment he forms—whether it be indicative, potential, or imperative. Words that denote attributes of objects are adjectives.

While this is the mark of the adjective, the noun is often used both to name an object and to denote the attribute of an object at the same time. In the statement, "The earth is a planet," the word planet is another name for the earth, and also denotes the class to which the earth belongs. The *class* of a thing is the attribute or group of attributes it has in common with the other things with which it is grouped.

Nouns in apposition with other nouns or in the possessive case have this double use also. They are adjective-nouns.

V.

REPRESENTED AND ACTUAL JUDGMENTS.

The difference between a clause and a sentence, as treated in grammar, corresponds to the difference between an Actual and a Represented Judgment. When the judgment of another is used as an element in one's own thought, it is a Represented Judgment. In the sentence, *That the earth is round is generally believed*, the entire thought has as its subject-element a judgment of the people in general. It may, however, be the judgment of the speaker. The words that express this represented judgment constitute a *clause*. All the words that express the speaker's thought form a *sentence*.

This is a technical, or grammatical, use of the word, *clause*. In general literature it has a different meaning.

Of course the represented judgment may be the judgment of the speaker used as an element in his present thought; as, I declare that *I have no opinion on this matter* (an objective element), or, He was at the landing when the boat arrived (adverbial modifier).

INDEX.

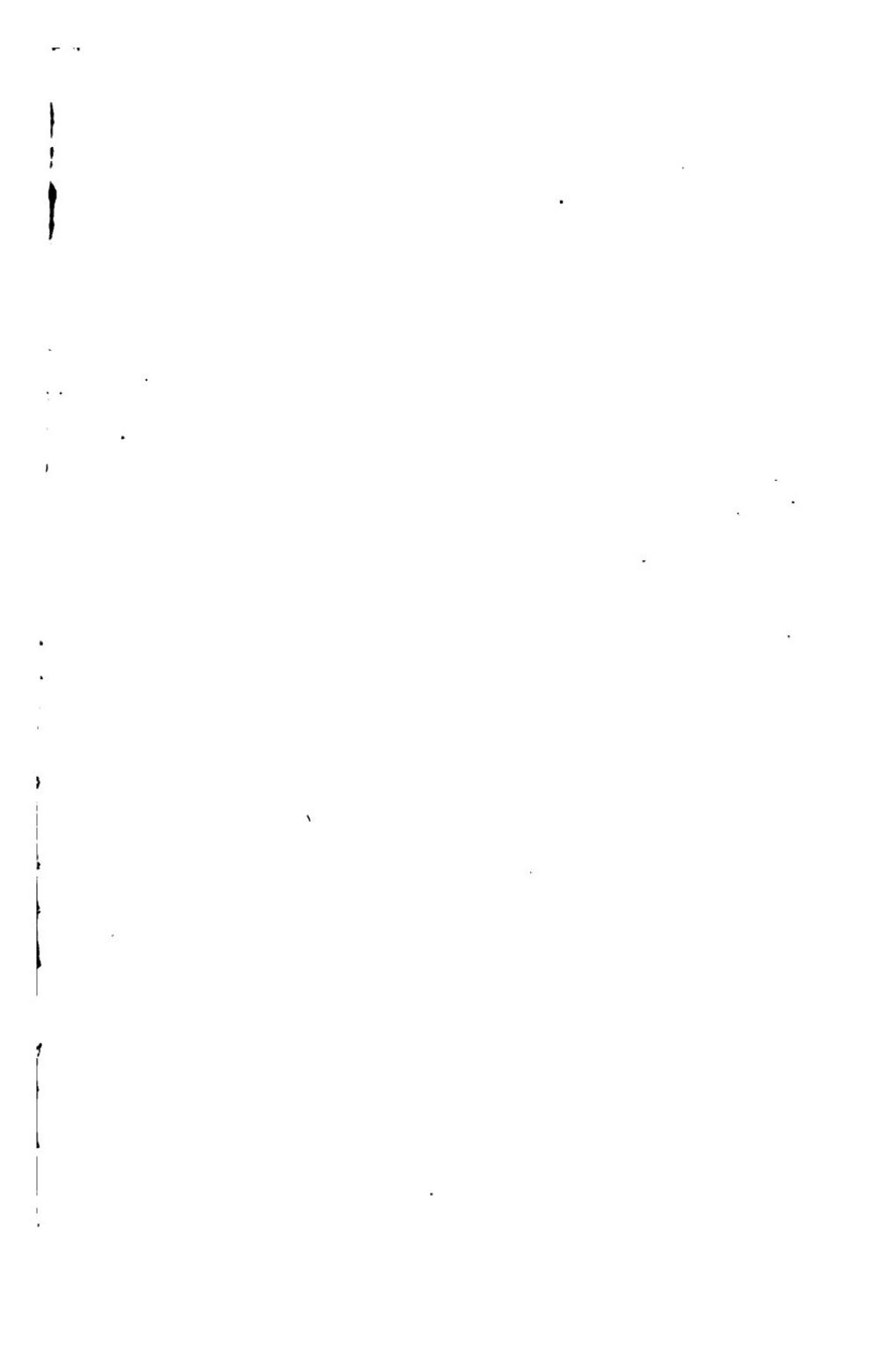
- Abstract nouns, 50, 111, 215
 action-ideas, 14, 15, 86.
 active voice, 190.
 adjective, 26, 27, 28, 29, 31, 36, 48, 52, 153, 214.
 clause, 68.
 modifiers, 81, 84, 98, 158.
 phrase, 65.
 adjectives, classes of, 154.
 comparison of, 156.
 descriptive, 154.
 definitive, 154.
 demonstrative, 154.
 distributive, 154.
 limiting, 52.
 numeral, 154.
 predicate, 158.
 relative, 52.
 uses of, 158.
 verbal, 156.
 adverb, 28, 29, 30, 31, 36, 48, 53, 200, 214.
 conjunctive, 99, 203.
 adverbs, classes of, 200.
 comparison of, 204.
 adverbial clause, 68, 201.
 modifiers, 81, 92.
 phrase, 68, 201.
 agreement of sentence elements, 230.
 rules for, 230, 231, 232, 233, 234.
 an, 220.
 analysis, grammatical, 211.
 of sentence, 216.
 thought, 211.
 antecedent, 144.
 appositives, 85, 182.
 arrangement of sentence elements, 230, 235, 236, 237.
 article, 59, 215.
 indefinite, 60.
 asserting idea, 32, 38, 40, 42, 48, 53.
 attribute-ideas, 13, 15, 22, 26, 27, 31, 36, 38, 40, 42, 48.
 -words, 26, 29, 31, 36, 48, 83.
 attributes, predicate, 40, 41, 42, 81.
 quality, 14, 15.
 as object-ideas, 49.
 of action, 14.
 of attributes, 26, 27, 31, 48.
 of objects, 26, 27, 31, 48.
 of relation, 52.
 attributive verb, 54, 88, 98, 161, 162, 168, 216.
 intransitive, 163.
 transitive, 163.
 auxiliary, do, an, 195.
 Be, conjugation of, 187, 188, 189.
 brackets, 244.
- Case, 124, 125, 216.
 appositive, 182.
 independent, by direct address, 132.
 nominative, 126, 129.
 with participle, 182.
 objective, 126, 127, 128, 129.
 possessive, 126, 128, 129, 183.
 class nouns, 110.
 clause modifiers, 85.
 clauses, 8, 63, 66, 67, 215.
 adjective, 68.
 adverbial, 68.
 noun, 68.
 collective noun, 118, 215.
 colon, 239, 240.
 comma, 239, 242, 243.
 comparative degree, 157, 158.
 comparison of adjectives, 156, 157.
 of adverbs, 204.
 complement, objective, 89, 90, 158.
 concrete noun, 112, 113, 215.
 conjugation of verb, 184.
 of be, 187.
 conjunction, 34, 35, 36, 48, 55, 56, 81, 94, 208, 214.
 -idea, 16, 17, 34, 35, 36.
 conjunctions, classes of, 95.
 coordinate, 95.
 subordinate, 96, 208.
 conjunctive-adverb, 99, 203.
 phrases, 210.
 connecting elements, 81, 93, 96.
 -ideas, 15, 16, 23, 31, 36, 38, 48.
 -words, 31, 36, 48.
 copula, 40, 48, 53, 81, 88, 94, 162.
 -connective, 96.
 -idea, 16, 17, 36.
 Dash, 243, 244.
 declarative judgment, 145.
 sentence, 46, 216.
 declension, 134.
 defective verbs, 171.
 definitions, 215.
 definitive adjectives, 154.
 degree, comparative, 157.
 positive, 157.
 superlative, 157.
 degrees of comparison, how expressed, 157, 158.
 demonstrative pronoun, 141, 148.
 derivation, 222.
 descriptive adjectives, 154.
 diagram of sentence, 103.
 do, an auxiliary, 195.
 Elements, connecting, 80, 81, 98.
 modifying, 80, 81.
 of sentence, 229.
 principal, 79, 81.

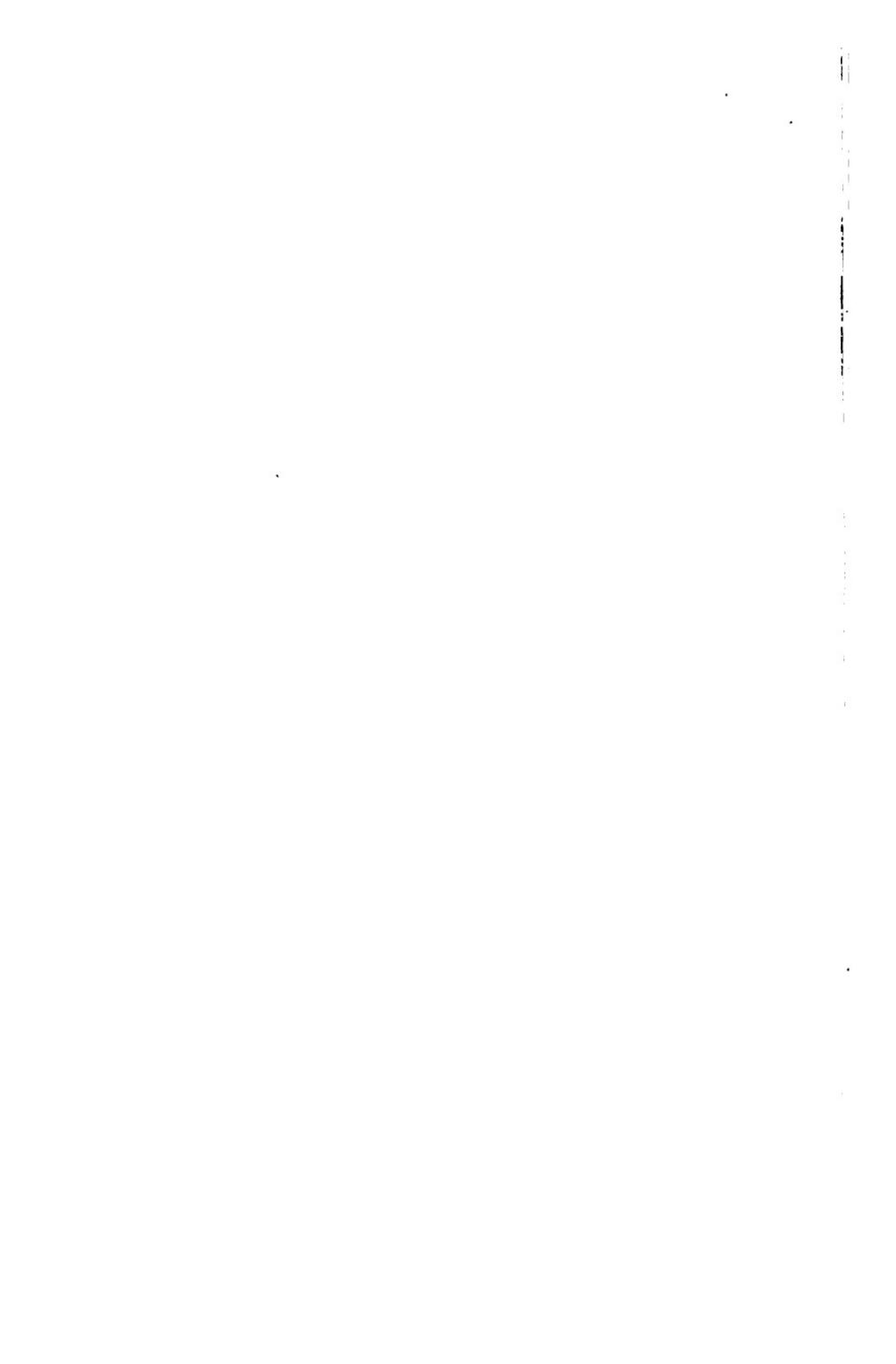
INDEX.

- essential parts of sentence, 78.
 exclamation point, 243, 244.
 exclamatory judgment, 46.
 sentence, 46, 216.
 expletive, 217.
 expression, punctuation marks of, 289.
 243.
 Feminine gender, 119.
 future tense, 179, 180.
 future perfect tense, 179, 180.
 Gender, feminine, 119.
 forms, 122.
 masculine, 119.
 neuter, 120.
 gerund, 61, 164, 194, 215.
 grammar, 9, 214.
 Ideas, 7, 8, 9.
 and their expression, 24.
 asserting, 82, 88, 42, 48.
 nature of, 11, 12, 22.
 action-, 14, 15, 36.
 attribute-, 13, 15, 22, 26, 27, 31, 36,
 38, 42, 48.
 conjunction-, 16, 35, 36.
 connecting, 15, 16, 23, 31, 36, 38,
 48.
 copula-, 16, 17, 36.
 object-, 13, 15, 22, 24, 31, 36, 38, 42,
 48.
 attributes used as, 49.
 preposition-, 33, 34, 86.
 quality, 13, 15, 36.
 idioms, 217.
 imperative judgment, 45.
 mood, 178, 191.
 sentence, 46, 216.
 indefinite pronoun, 141, 148.
 independent case by direct address,
 132.
 indicative mood, 173.
 infinitive, 60, 164, 174, 215. ✓
 perfect, 192.
 present, 192.
 inflection, 108, 116, 215.
 of pronouns, 142.
 of verbs, 172.
 interjection, 57, 211, 215.
 interrogative point, 248, 244.
 interrogative judgment, 45.
 pronoun, 140, 148.
 sentence, 46, 216.
 intransitive verb, 163.
 irregular verbs, 165.
 list of, 166, 167, 168, 169, 170, 171
 it, 218.
 Judgment, 19, 20, 23, 38, 89, 214.
 declarative, 45.
 exclamatory, 46.
 imperative, 45.
 interrogative, 45.
 Language, 9.
 lessons, 9.
 Masculine gender, 119.
 mine, 218.
 Noun, 25, 31, 36, 48, 49, 109, 214
 abstract, 50, 111, 215.
 class, 110.
- noun,
 classes of, 110.
 clause, 68.
 collective, 118, 215.
 concrete, 112, 215.
 parsing, 135.
 phrase, 65.
 proper, 110.
 synopsis for review, 138.
 uses of, 184, 185.
 number of verbs, 181, 182.
 plural, 117, 118.
 singular, 117.
 Object-ideas, 18, 15, 22, 24, 31, 36, 38,
 42, 48.
 attributes as, 49.
 words, 24, 25, 31, 86, 48.
 of preposition, 205.
 objects, attributes of, 26, 27, 31.
 external, 11, 12.
 objective case, 126, 127, 129.
 complement, 89, 90, 158.
 direct, 87, 90.
 indirect, 88, 90.
 modifiers, 87, 90.
 ours, 218.
 Parentheses, 244.
 parsing, 135.
 noun, 135, 136.
 pronoun, 147.
 verb, 182.
 participle, 58, 85, 215.
 nominative case with, 182.
 past, 164, 193.
 perfect, 193.
 present, 164, 193.
 parts of speech, 48, 49, 214.
 classes of, 109.
 passive voice, 190.
 past participle, 164, 193.
 perfect tense, 179, 180.
 tense, 176, 180, of potential mood,
 186.
 perfect infinite, 192.
 participle, 193.
 tenses, 179, 180.
 period, 239.
 person, 123.
 of verbs, 181, 182.
 personal pronoun, 140, 142
 compound, 143.
 personification, 120.
 phrases, 8, 63, 64, 215.
 adjectives, 65.
 adverbial, 65.
 conjunctive, 210.
 modifiers, 85.
 phrases, noun, 65
 peculiar uses or, 221.
 verb, 65, 66, 184.
 plural number, 117, 118.
 positive degree, 157.
 possessive case, 126, 128, 129.
 rules for forming, 133.
 possessives, 85.
 potential mood, 178, 185.
 tenses, 186

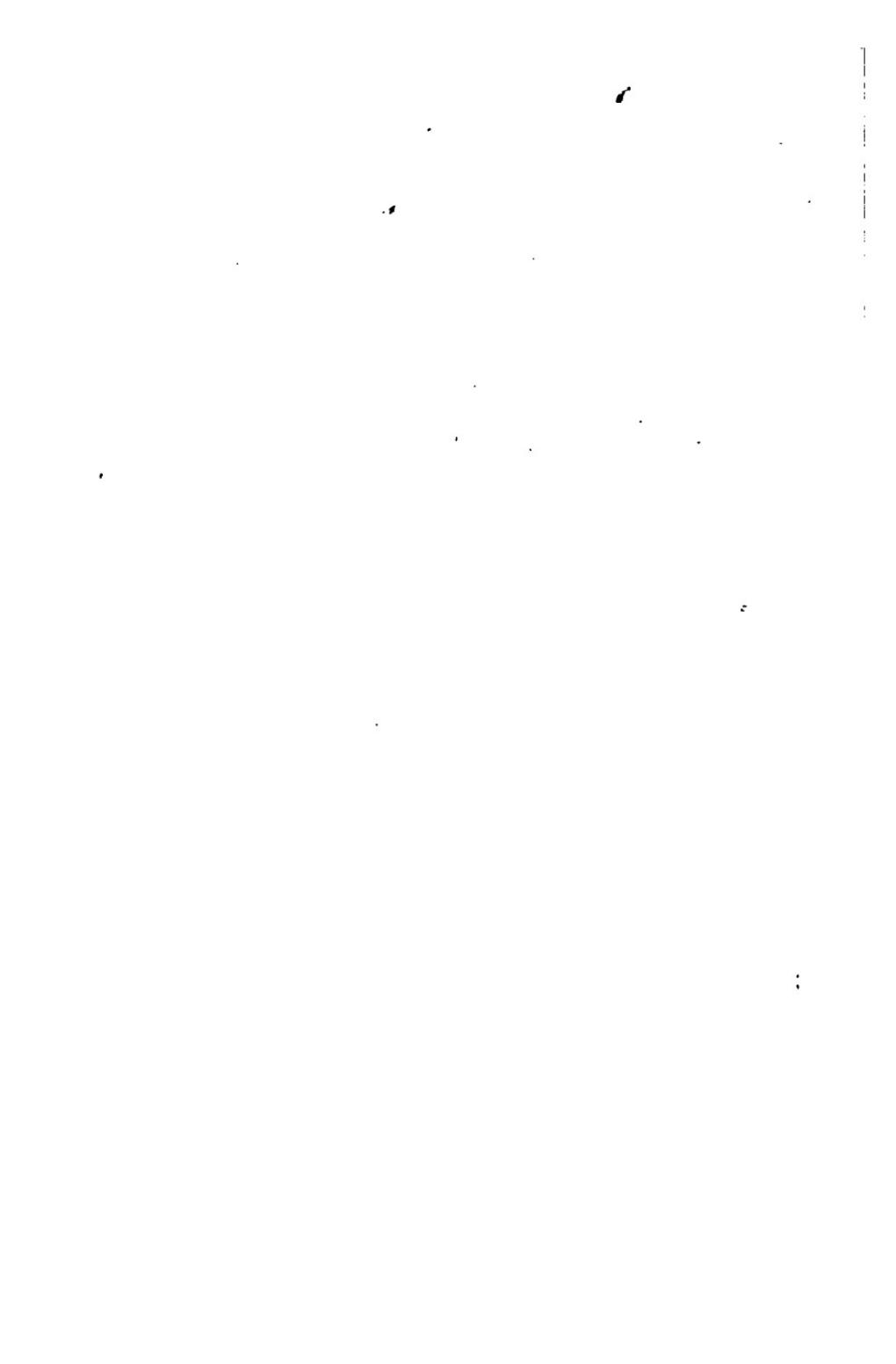
- predicate-adjective, 158.
 -attribute, 40, 41, 42, 81.
 -idea, 39, 40.
 of sentence, 78, 81, complete, 82, incomplete, 82, 83, 93.
 of thought, 21, 40, 42.
 prefix, 223, 224.
 preposition, 32, 84, 36, 48, 54, 55, 81, 94, 205.
 object of, 205, 214.
 -idea, 33, 34, 36.
 use of, 206.
 prepositional phrase, 206.
 present infinitive, 192.
 participle, 164, 193.
 perfect tense, 179, 180.
 tense, 178, 180.
 progressive form of verb, 189.
 pronouns, 25, 26, 31, 36, 48, 51, 140, 214.
 classes of, 140.
 compound personal, 148.
 demonstrative, 141, 148.
 indefinite, 141, 148.
 inflection of, 142.
 interrogative, 140, 148.
 parsing, 147.
 personal, 140, 148.
 relative, 98, 141, 144, 145.
 uses of, 134, 135, 146.
 proper nouns, 110.
 punctuation, 238.
 marks of, 238, 239.
 pure verb, 54, 96, 162, 216.
 Quality-ideas, 15, 36.
 -attributes, 14.
 quotation marks, 244.
 Relative pronouns, 141, 144, 145.
 compound, 145.
 declension of, 145.
 descriptive, 145.
 restrictive, 145.
 root, 223.
 -words, 225.
 Semicolon, 239, 241.
 sentence, analysis of, 100, 216.
 complex, 78, 209, 215.
 compound, 74, 209, 215.
 connecting elements of, 80, 81, 94.
 declarative, 46.
 elements of a, 78, 79, 81, 229.
 essential parts of, 78.
 exclamatory, 46.
 forms of, 71.
 the ideal, 228.
 imperative, 46.
 interrogative, 46.
 modifying elements of, 80, 81.
 predicate of, complete, 82, incomplete, 82, 83.
 principal elements of, 79, 81.
 simple, 71, 72, 215.
 -subject, 45.
 subject of, complete, 81.
 separation, punctuation marks of, 239.
 colon, 240.
 comma, 242, 243.
 separation, punctuation marks of,
 period, 239.
 semicolon, 241.
 singular number, 117.
 subject of sentence, 45, 78, 81.
 complete, 81.
 of thought, 20, 40, 41, 42, 45.
 subjunctive mood, 175, 191.
 suffix, 223, 224.
 superlative degree, 157.
 synopsis of verb, 186.
 syntax, 227, 229.
 Tense, future, 179, 180.
 past, 178, 180.
 present, 178, 180.
 tenses of potential mood, 186.
 relative, 179.
 future perfect, 179, 180.
 past perfect, 179, 180.
 present perfect, 179, 180.
 theirs, 218.
 there, 217.
 thine, 218.
 thought, formation of a, 89.
 predicate of, 21, 40, 42.
 subject of, 20, 40, 41, 42, 45.
 thoughts, 7, 8, 9, 214.
 and their expression, 38, 44.
 kinds of, 45.
 nature of, 18, 19, 23.
 transitive verb, 163.
 Verb, attributive, 54, 88, 98, 161, 162, 163, 216.
 transitive, 163; intransitive, 163.
 conjugation of, 184.
 definition of, 214.
 gerund, 164.
 infinite, 164.
 parsing the, 182.
 past participle, 164.
 verb-phrases, 65, 66, 184.
 present participle, 164.
 progressive form of, 189.
 pure, 54, 162, 216.
 synopsis of, 186.
 voice, 190.
 verbs, classes of, 161.
 defective, 171.
 forms of, 164.
 inflection of, 172.
 moods 172, 173, 174, 175, 185.
 person and number, 181, 182.
 tenses, 178.
 list of irregular, 165.
 peculiar uses of some, 220.
 principal parts of, 165.
 regular and irregular, 165.
 verbal adjectives, 156.
 voice, 190, 216.
 What, 220.
 word modifiers, 84.
 words, attribute, 26, 29, 31, 36, 88.
 connecting, 31, 86.
 derivation of, 109.
 inflection of, 109.
 object-, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125, 126, 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 154, 155, 156, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 167, 168, 169, 170, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183, 184, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193, 194, 195, 196, 197, 198, 199, 200, 201, 202, 203, 204, 205, 206, 207, 208, 209, 210, 211, 212, 213, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218, 219, 220, 221, 222, 223, 224, 225, 226, 227, 228, 229, 230, 231, 232, 233, 234, 235, 236, 237, 238, 239, 240, 241, 242, 243, 244, 245, 246, 247, 248, 249, 250, 251, 252, 253, 254, 255, 256, 257, 258, 259, 260, 261, 262, 263, 264, 265, 266, 267, 268, 269, 270, 271, 272, 273, 274, 275, 276, 277, 278, 279, 280, 281, 282, 283, 284, 285, 286, 287, 288, 289, 290, 291, 292, 293, 294, 295, 296, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 302, 303, 304, 305, 306, 307, 308, 309, 310, 311, 312, 313, 314, 315, 316, 317, 318, 319, 320, 321, 322, 323, 324, 325, 326, 327, 328, 329, 330, 331, 332, 333, 334, 335, 336, 337, 338, 339, 340, 341, 342, 343, 344, 345, 346, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 352, 353, 354, 355, 356, 357, 358, 359, 360, 361, 362, 363, 364, 365, 366, 367, 368, 369, 370, 371, 372, 373, 374, 375, 376, 377, 378, 379, 380, 381, 382, 383, 384, 385, 386, 387, 388, 389, 390, 391, 392, 393, 394, 395, 396, 397, 398, 399, 400, 401, 402, 403, 404, 405, 406, 407, 408, 409, 410, 411, 412, 413, 414, 415, 416, 417, 418, 419, 420, 421, 422, 423, 424, 425, 426, 427, 428, 429, 430, 431, 432, 433, 434, 435, 436, 437, 438, 439, 440, 441, 442, 443, 444, 445, 446, 447, 448, 449, 450, 451, 452, 453, 454, 455, 456, 457, 458, 459, 460, 461, 462, 463, 464, 465, 466, 467, 468, 469, 470, 471, 472, 473, 474, 475, 476, 477, 478, 479, 480, 481, 482, 483, 484, 485, 486, 487, 488, 489, 490, 491, 492, 493, 494, 495, 496, 497, 498, 499, 500, 501, 502, 503, 504, 505, 506, 507, 508, 509, 510, 511, 512, 513, 514, 515, 516, 517, 518, 519, 520, 521, 522, 523, 524, 525, 526, 527, 528, 529, 530, 531, 532, 533, 534, 535, 536, 537, 538, 539, 540, 541, 542, 543, 544, 545, 546, 547, 548, 549, 550, 551, 552, 553, 554, 555, 556, 557, 558, 559, 550, 551, 552, 553, 554, 555, 556, 557, 558, 559, 560, 561, 562, 563, 564, 565, 566, 567, 568, 569, 570, 571, 572, 573, 574, 575, 576, 577, 578, 579, 580, 581, 582, 583, 584, 585, 586, 587, 588, 589, 580, 581, 582, 583, 584, 585, 586, 587, 588, 589, 590, 591, 592, 593, 594, 595, 596, 597, 598, 599, 590, 591, 592, 593, 594, 595, 596, 597, 598, 599, 600, 601, 602, 603, 604, 605, 606, 607, 608, 609, 600, 601, 602, 603, 604, 605, 606, 607, 608, 609, 610, 611, 612, 613, 614, 615, 616, 617, 618, 619, 610, 611, 612, 613, 614, 615, 616, 617, 618, 619, 620, 621, 622, 623, 624, 625, 626, 627, 628, 629, 620, 621, 622, 623, 624, 625, 626, 627, 628, 629, 630, 631, 632, 633, 634, 635, 636, 637, 638, 639, 630, 631, 632, 633, 634, 635, 636, 637, 638, 639, 640, 641, 642, 643, 644, 645, 646, 647, 648, 649, 640, 641, 642, 643, 644, 645, 646, 647, 648, 649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 654, 655, 656, 657, 658, 659, 650, 651, 652, 653, 654, 655, 656, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662, 663, 664, 665, 666, 667, 668, 669, 660, 661, 662, 663, 664, 665, 666, 667, 668, 669, 670, 671, 672, 673, 674, 675, 676, 677, 678, 679, 670, 671, 672, 673, 674, 675, 676, 677, 678, 679, 680, 681, 682, 683, 684, 685, 686, 687, 688, 689, 680, 681, 682, 683, 684, 685, 686, 687, 688, 689, 690, 691, 692, 693, 694, 695, 696, 697, 698, 699, 690, 691, 692, 693, 694, 695, 696, 697, 698, 699, 700, 701, 702, 703, 704, 705, 706, 707, 708, 709, 700, 701, 702, 703, 704, 705, 706, 707, 708, 709, 710, 711, 712, 713, 714, 715, 716, 717, 718, 719, 710, 711, 712, 713, 714, 715, 716, 717, 718, 719, 720, 721, 722, 723, 724, 725, 726, 727, 728, 729, 720, 721, 722, 723, 724, 725, 726, 727, 728, 729, 730, 731, 732, 733, 734, 735, 736, 737, 738, 739, 730, 731, 732, 733, 734, 735, 736, 737, 738, 739, 740, 741, 742, 743, 744, 745, 746, 747, 748, 749, 740, 741, 742, 743, 744, 745, 746, 747, 748, 749, 750, 751, 752, 753, 754, 755, 756, 757, 758, 759, 750, 751, 752, 753, 754, 755, 756, 757, 758, 759, 760, 761, 762, 763, 764, 765, 766, 767, 768, 769, 760, 761, 762, 763, 764, 765, 766, 767, 768, 769, 770, 771, 772, 773, 774, 775, 776, 777, 778, 779, 770, 771, 772, 773, 774, 775, 776, 777, 778, 779, 780, 781, 782, 783, 784, 785, 786, 787, 788, 789, 780, 781, 782, 783, 784, 785, 786, 787, 788, 789, 790, 791, 792, 793, 794, 795, 796, 797, 798, 799, 790, 791, 792, 793, 794, 795, 796, 797, 798, 799, 800, 801, 802, 803, 804, 805, 806, 807, 808, 809, 800, 801, 802, 803, 804, 805, 806, 807, 808, 809, 810, 811, 812, 813, 814, 815, 816, 817, 818, 819, 810, 811, 812, 813, 814, 815, 816, 817, 818, 819, 820, 821, 822, 823, 824, 825, 826, 827, 828, 829, 820, 821, 822, 823, 824, 825, 826, 827, 828, 829, 830, 831, 832, 833, 834, 835, 836, 837, 838, 839, 830, 831, 832, 833, 834, 835, 836, 837, 838, 839, 840, 841, 842, 843, 844, 845, 846, 847, 848, 849, 840, 841, 842, 843, 844, 845, 846, 847, 848, 849, 850, 851, 852, 853, 854, 855, 856, 857, 858, 859, 850, 851, 852, 853, 854, 855, 856, 857, 858, 859, 860, 861, 862, 863, 864, 865, 866, 867, 868, 869, 860, 861, 862, 863, 864, 865, 866, 867, 868, 869, 870, 871, 872, 873, 874, 875, 876, 877, 878, 879, 870, 871, 872, 873, 874, 875, 876, 877, 878, 879, 880, 881, 882, 883, 884, 885, 886, 887, 888, 889, 880, 881, 882, 883, 884, 885, 886, 887, 888, 889, 890, 891, 892, 893, 894, 895, 896, 897, 898, 899, 890, 891, 892, 893, 894, 895, 896, 897, 898, 899, 900, 901, 902, 903, 904, 905, 906, 907, 908, 909, 900, 901, 902, 903, 904, 905, 906, 907, 908, 909, 910, 911, 912, 913, 914, 915, 916, 917, 918, 919, 910, 911, 912, 913, 914, 915, 916, 917, 918, 919, 920, 921, 922, 923, 924, 925, 926, 927, 928, 929, 920, 921, 922, 923, 924, 925, 926, 927, 928, 929, 930, 931, 932, 933, 934, 935, 936, 937, 938, 939, 930, 931, 932, 933, 934, 935, 936, 937, 938, 939, 940, 941, 942, 943, 944, 945, 946, 947, 948, 949, 940, 941, 942, 943, 944, 945, 946, 947, 948, 949, 950, 951, 952, 953, 954, 955, 956, 957, 958, 959, 950, 951, 952, 953, 954, 955, 956, 957, 958, 959, 960, 961, 962, 963, 964, 965, 966, 967, 968, 969, 960, 961, 962, 963, 964, 965, 966, 967, 968, 969, 970, 971, 972, 973, 974, 975, 976, 977, 978, 979, 970, 971, 972, 973, 974, 975, 976, 977, 978, 979, 980, 981, 982, 983, 984, 985, 986, 987, 988, 989, 980, 981, 982, 983, 984, 985, 986, 987, 988, 989, 990, 991, 992, 993, 994, 995, 996, 997, 998, 999, 990, 991, 992, 993, 994, 995, 996, 997, 998, 999, 1000, 1001, 1002, 1003, 1004, 1005, 1006, 1007, 1008, 1009, 1000, 1001, 1002, 1003, 1004, 1005, 1006, 1007, 1008, 1009, 1010, 1011, 1012, 1013, 1014, 1015, 1016, 1017, 1018, 1019, 1010, 1011, 1012, 1013, 1014, 1015, 1016, 1017, 1018, 1019, 1020, 1021, 1022, 1023, 1024, 1025, 1026, 1027, 1028, 1029, 1020, 1021, 1022, 1023, 1024, 1025, 1026, 1027, 1028, 1029, 1030, 1031, 1032, 1033, 1034, 1035, 1036, 1037, 1038, 1039, 1030, 1031, 1032, 1033, 1034, 1035, 1036, 1037, 1038, 1039, 1040, 1041, 1042, 1043, 1044, 1045, 1046, 1047, 1048, 1049, 1040, 1041, 1042, 1043, 1044, 1045, 1046, 1047, 1048, 1049, 1050, 1051, 1052, 1053, 1054, 1055, 1056, 1057, 1058, 1059, 1050, 1051, 1052, 1053, 1054, 1055, 1056, 1057, 1058, 1059, 1060, 1061, 1062, 1063, 1064, 1065, 1066, 1067, 1068, 1069, 1060, 1061, 1062, 1063, 1064, 1065, 1066, 1067, 1068, 1069, 1070, 1071, 1072, 1073, 1074, 1075, 1076, 1077, 1078, 1079, 1070, 1071, 1072, 1073, 1074, 1075, 1076, 1077, 1078, 1079, 1080, 1081, 1082, 1083, 1084, 1085, 1086, 1087, 1088, 1089, 1080, 1081, 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